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The
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JOURNAL



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NOTE—Readers are reminded that the relative order of articles in the *Journal* does not necessarily carry implications as to the comparative merits of contributions. The *Journal* is equally grateful to all its contributors, past, present, and potential, for their co-operation.

What Others Think of Us

H. C. OLINGER

WE ARE very happy to publish this statement in favor of modern languages by Professor I. L. Kandel, a most distinguished member of our profession and a leading authority in international education for the past twenty-five years.

The United States has embarked on one of the greatest experiments in education that the world has ever seen—the extension of educational opportunities to all boys and girls irrespective of their social or economic circumstances. Already nearly 75 per cent of the adolescent group is enrolled in high schools and the enrollments in colleges are constantly increasing. The traditional faith in education is beginning to be implemented to a degree which even those who formulated the ideal in the early years of the Republic never anticipated. To provide schools for all, however, is not enough. Of greater importance is the kind of education which is made available. For thirty years now there has been complete uncertainty about the kind of education to be provided in the high schools. In order to meet the needs of the ever growing number of pupils in the high schools, differing in abilities, aptitudes, and interest, there has been a constant dilution of the curriculum and a consequent decreasing sense of educational values. To meet the wide range of individual differences the high school curriculum has been expanded until something like three hundred courses are offered throughout the country, all supposedly of equal value because taught for the same length of time.

The difficulties which have resulted have not been ignored, and Commissions have been appointed, one after the other, without solving any of them. The most recent recommendations seek to find a common core of studies adapted to all pupils. That core is to include English, social studies, and occupational studies; whatever time is left over—and to judge from suggested time-schedules not much time will be left over—may be devoted to more specialized studies such as foreign languages. It is possible that in the long run even the average exposure of two years to the study of foreign languages will be reduced. No one would, I think, deny that it is desirable to see to it that the curriculum is so organized that all pupils derive some profit from it, but the ideal of providing equality of educational opportunities for all will be defeated if those who have the ability are denied the chance to go as far as that ability permits. A democratic system of education has the responsibility of raising the intelligence and understanding of all; but it also has an obligation to those of more than average ability. Education cannot in a democracy be selective, but it should be distributive in the sense that it is so organized that each pupil profits by it to the full extent of his abilities. Such a principle would break down the current trend

to divorce academic and practical education; for those of the requisite ability the academic course may, indeed, be the most practical.

It is a curious paradox that at a time when the United States must inevitably play a greater role in international affairs than ever in her history and when such widespread attention is being devoted to the development of international understanding through education, the importance of providing a more assured place for the study of foreign languages than ever before is not recognized by those who are guiding the destinies of secondary education. It is true that under the stimulus of the Good Neighbor Policy increased attention has been devoted to the provision of courses in Spanish and Portuguese. It has, in fact, been recognized that if we are to understand our neighbors, we must acquire through the languages that they speak a greater insight into their culture than can be secured through the medium of English. The very essence, however, of international understanding must be the gradual realization that all peoples of the world are becoming our neighbors.

For education this has a vital implication; it means that the languages of the peoples of the world cannot be ignored and that an increasing number of pupils should be given their rightful opportunity to study some of them—not in terms of meeting college entrance requirements or of requirements for high school graduation, but with such time allotments, content organization, and methods of instruction as will place them on the road to mastery both in reading and speaking. Which of the many languages that have been taught in the war years should find a place in the high schools must be determined by the specialists and by the number of competent teachers available. Certainly when the war is over there will be large numbers of American citizens who will have come to realize the value and importance of a mastery of foreign languages. Equally established are the improved methods of instruction which have resulted from the experiments in teaching the great variety of languages needed by our far-flung armed forces. For educators to minimize the place of foreign languages in high schools, while seeking to promote better international understanding is not only unrealistic, but is to deny an opportunity to study foreign languages to large numbers who because of their ability have a rightful claim to it. If that opportunity is provided, however, it is equally important that adequate attention be devoted to securing teachers sufficiently competent to give real meaning to the opportunity offered. Failure to provide a rightful place in our educational institutions for the study of foreign languages by American youth able to profit by it is to cultivate a type of provincialism which is hardly compatible with the profession by leading educators of the importance of promoting international good will and understanding.

I. L. KANDEL

*Teachers College
Columbia University*

April 12, 1945

DEAR MR. OLINGER:

I enclose excerpts from letters of the boys overseas. These boys live in Kearney, Nebraska, and studied French in my classes in the State Teachers College at Kearney, Nebraska.

I thought that what these boys have to say might help to emphasize the need for the study of modern foreign languages in our high schools and colleges, especially the French which is so widely used. I included material that deals with their impressions of the different countries and peoples they have seen and shows how much more they are benefitting in their travels as a result of their knowledge of the language of the country where they may be.

As you know the book I sent the boys is the *Materials for a War Course in French* indicated by the Bureau of Information of the AATF.

Very cordially yours,

ALMA HOSIC

Professor Emeritus

Head of Modern Languages

*State Teachers College
Kearney, Nebraska*

S/Sgt. Arthur A. Kennedy Jr.

Ser. No. 37448774

242 QM Depot Company—A.P.O. 350

New York, N. Y.

We have a radio in our unit and get the news from England every day and occasionally hear a transcript from the states. The only trouble is that every one is working so hard and such long hours that we don't have much time to listen. We operate 24 hours a day, and 7 days a week. We sort of expect that those on the home front will take care of things there. Believe me we have our hands full. Somebody usually takes down the news from the radio and posts it on the bulletin board.

We use German prisoners for labor and I enjoy watching them help us beat Hitler. We took over some buildings so have a better place to live in now. It was quite miserable sleeping on the mud for so long.

I am enclosing a "Petit Calendrier." My vocabulary is increasing all the time which is what I need. I can put the words together well enough, if I can think of the words I want. I make myself understood much more easily than I understand but with practice it is coming back to me.

T 3 John Ludden 37119001

818 M A E T Sq.

A.P.O. 133

c/o Postmaster

New York, N. Y.

The book you described sounds like it would be the real thing for a fellow under the circumstances in which I find myself. I am often at a loss for the exact word in French noun and verb forms. They are not too difficult to make out from the excellent background which

you gave concerning those things. So if you can send me a copy of *Materials for a War Course in French*, it would be very much appreciated not only by me, but by many others here.

Ensign G. C. Mitchell, USNR
USS LST 307
c/o Fleet P. O.
New York, N. Y.

April, 1940

On my former ship one of the officers in the stateroom next to mine was a teacher of French in Michigan. He was really a whizz, but now and then I got in a few punches. On the ship where I am now one of the officers is very good in French so I may get a little practice. Daily over the radio the American Station gives lessons in French to which we listen at noon during chow. I brought your little pocket size French book along and I also bought another French book here.

With all the bad aspects related to war it has one good point for us Americans. For we boys who are seeing other countries than our own it will make us realize so fully how fortunate we are in living in a country like America where no individual is prohibited from developing himself to his full capacity and where progress is not muzzled by state tradition.

The most beautiful sunset which I have witnessed since being overseas was last night. It reminded me of home again, for Nebraska does have colorful sunsets. England, because of its weather, has little in the way of scenic horizons.

I examined a pair of French wooden shoes yesterday and wondered how they can walk with comfort in them. Les petits garçons wear sort of a smock with a short apron over it containing a large pocket, somewhat like a carpenter's apron over it. They say the Germans are très mauvais.

These days are busy ones. Sleep comes only in spurts and at irregular times. But everyone here feels that the more we put into it the sooner we shall get the job finished and start heading home. The sound of the word home is something sweet and sanctified.

I've learned to call radio wireless
A victrola to me now is a "gram"
Instead of catching a street car
Now, "blimy" I'm hopping a tram.

I drive on the left here in England
By "lorry" and not in a truck;
And when I'm spending my money
"Five shillings" is "limey" for buck.

My auto won't run without "petrol"
And "cheerio" I use for goodby;
A "clippie" for a street-car conductor
I say "bloke" for a guy.

And though my speech has been altered
And changed since I've been away—
I still have no trouble in wishing
"Merry Xmas" the American way.

March 15, 1945

I received *Materials for a War course in French* for which I thank you very much. I have already referred to it for some nautical terms which I wanted to know. You were very kind to send it to me and I am very grateful.

I notice the midnight curfew has raised quite a hullabaloo in the states. I give Byrnes credit for being man enough to stick his neck out. People in the states should be more respectful toward the law especially in matters intended for the good of the whole country. In England, everything closes at 10 o'clock and everything is quiet at 12. Everyone is fit for work in the morning.

La Belle France Fevrier 15, 1945

These days every one resorts to the excuse, "C'est la guerre." (This is my excuse for the delay in answering your letter. I thank you for the beautiful Christmas card you sent me. The introductory words were so appropriate, "To you wherever you are on Christmas day." I was at sea navigating that day. As Christmas morn rolled around to us in the darkness of the sea, I went up to the cannon tower and joined the officer-of-the-deck in singing the old but melodious Christmas carols to the vast emptiness around us.

I wish I could be assigned to duty in France so that I would have the opportunity of using French every day.

The thatched roofs and the stone mansions make the French countryside very interesting, but more interesting and pleasant is the sight of the Kraut's military machine lying wrecked along the roadside.

S/Sgt. James F. Harding
Hd. and Hd. Squadron
12th Tactical Air Command
A.P.O. 374 c/o Postmaster
New York, N. Y.

FIRST EXPERIENCES IN NORTH AFRICA

Here we are hale and hearty in North Africa, after a safe and interesting and most pleasant trip across the Atlantic.

We left our boat about 2:00 A.M. and marched to our bivouac in about two hours. When we got to our area which was formerly a large cricket field, we were so tired that we just put our raincoats down, overcoats on and slept on the bare ground. We are now sleeping in pup tents. We have some hay on the ground; then blankets so it is not so bad. We sleep with our clothes on—wool socks, wool underwear, fatigue uniforms, field jacket, overcoat, cap and knitted scarf.

The first morning I looked out through our fence, and there were natives in robes and turbans, barefooted, going into market on camels, dromedaries and mules. Natives hang around the fence all the time selling oranges, nuts, postcards, rings and knives, and all kinds of leather goods made of camel hide. I bought a camel skin wallet to hold this big sized money—French franc notes, etc.

Several languages are spoken here in North Africa: Arabic dialects, Italian, French, and Spanish. But the most used is French, so I have really been in my element. I have wished that I had a college major instead of a minor in French.

Africa, January, 1943

It seems funny to hear such a garble of languages all the time. At home it was a novelty to buy a French newspaper or magazine. Here it is a novelty to get anything else. We also have French bread purchased in the little French bread shops. Pete and I bought 40 loaves and sold them to the other fellows in our company. It was great sport dickering the women for better prices. The natives make a game of bargaining. You never buy anything at the market price. It just is not done. We bought some cookies. They tasted just like soap. There was no flavor at all.

My French works pretty well and we had a lot of fun using it. Little French kids flock into

the streets yelling, "Bonbons." These people would sell their souls for a candy-bar, or a package of gum.

We take turns on passes to town and go in groups of ten for protection. A non-com and one or two interpreters go with each group. I am an interpreter now for French.

Africa, February, 1943

I see your point very clearly as to the language need in the college. You are right about the college education, especially in language helping us to orient ourselves. A working knowledge of French is an invaluable asset which every man wishes he had to a greater extent—usable idioms, shades of meaning, etc.

North Africa, April, 1943

I hopped on my bicycle without opening my mail and went to see a friend in the hospital. Then I rode four blocks through pine-lined streets to the ocean. I have never looked upon a more beautiful scene—sun setting upon a serene, tropical, clear, blue sky with just a touch of mist hanging over the water.

The natives come into town with huge baskets of iris, marigolds, and other beautifully colored wild flowers balanced on their heads. Spring definitely has come to North Africa.

I am in charge of a shift of men which makes it more interesting. I am listed to help them understand and use French.

North Africa, May, 1943

Since the fighting in North Africa has been concluded, we have time to do things we want to do. I have been reading, swimming in the surf, and horseback riding. I played tennis to-day at a very nice private French tennis club. I enjoyed the game and the men I met very much. Some of the French here are from Paris and are very pleasant to meet.

Italy, June, 1943

Everyone speaks French here and nearly every one speaks English as well as Italian and a little German. I find that I use my French more freely than I did in Africa. I was a bit hazy and hesitant there. Now I just plunge right in. I had the rather unusual experience of an Italian asking me in English for the word for true in French. He had forgotten. I told him. We chatted a lot as we rode on one of the very modern Roman street cars. All in all I make very good use of the French training I have, and I am very grateful for it.

France, November, 1944

Since the campaign up through France has kept me so very busy I have not been able to answer your letter of September, 1944.

When I cannot think of just the word I want I ask the French for it. One of the officers of our squadron was a teacher of French in civilian life and he has been giving a few of us a sort of review course that is helpful.

I shall be very grateful for the French material you suggest especially the *Materials for a War Course in French*.

Lt. Harold E. Swan
0-1170216
Hq. Div. Arty. A.P.O. 257
c/o Postmaster
New York, N. Y.

For heroic achievement against the enemy in military operations in Germany, November 4, 1944, Lt. Harold Swan has been awarded the bronze star medal. He has also been promoted from second to first lieutenant. Lt. Swan is a rifle platoon leader with the 202nd Ozark division.

France—

I am now in an interesting spot—a World War I battlefield. One can still see the shell craters and old trenches.

When we left England we landed on one of the beachheads in Normandy. In 48 hours we were ahead of everyone pushing eastward. My first sight of France was the distant coast line at night. In the morning one could see hundreds of ships in all directions. My first taste of war was the dead body of a German aviator floating outward on the tide.

We had hardly settled down before we were on the move again. I am afraid that sleeping and eating are habits. You would be surprised how long a person can go without either—and after a while you almost have to force yourself to eat, and sleeping becomes a matter of cat naps.

From the purely psychological end this war is a matter of mental balance. You are thrown off balance most of the time but those who can swing back fast enough seem to be barely touched by it all. It is when the swing back is not completed, before you are off again, that it begins to get you down.

I have decided to make this as enjoyable as possible. I borrowed a little equipment from the Germans—a trailer from a railroad car on the track in one of our conquests, a mattress to fit the same, off a general's bed in another city, comforts and wool blankets from a boche warehouse and I now have a comfortable place to sleep and take life as easy as you could imagine.

I have borrowed some cooking utensils. There are plenty of vegetables, eggs and chickens for the taking.

The country is beautiful. In many respects it reminds me of the Platte Valley and again looks a lot like West Virginia.

The French people themselves are really marvelous—much more like Americans than the English. They are deeply affectionate, shake your hand when possible and kiss you on both cheeks. Almost all the girls are very well built and nice looking. The people throng the streets as you pass through, yelling, crying, shaking hands, giving you wine, bread, eggs, fruit. It really makes you feel like a crusader. My speaking French helps things along. I have had a chance to get everything from a sedan to the hat off a general we captured.

As the American soldiers go along, the French hand them nearly anything they have—cigarettes, candy, division patches, money, extra clothes,—anything. I am telling you as far as the French are concerned there is no one living like an American.

The Free French are helping quite a bit. They are by no means winning the war, but in their way help quite a bit. They seem to be without fear and I am afraid many of them die needlessly.

This whole thing has been really planned. Things are not just happening. You are away out in front and you cannot see why the Germans do not cut you off entirely and destroy you at their leisure—then all of a sudden it seems like half the U. S. army is on either side of you.

Germany, December, 1944

There is no doubt in my mind that the year of French I had in your class, Miss Hosis, has benefited me more directly than any other subject that I have taken. It would be impossible to enumerate the occasions I have had to put it to use. Many of us owe our lives to some helpful Frenchmen giving us the location of mines, booby traps, enemy guns, and enemy personnel. In this use it was invaluable.

From the social point of view those of us able to speak and understand even some French enjoyed ourselves—the French people and the country of France, itself, a hundred times more. One year of French is too little, but it is astounding how much you can understand and say

after a short time in France. Thanks to your excellent teaching I retained enough of the underlying principles of French grammar and in particular the pronunciation and of the word forms so that I can understand a very great amount of any conversation. In turn, I have been able to express myself, sometimes having to resort to gestures, to obtain the information desired. I am very sorry that I did not take more French and several years of German in college.

To be able to speak even a little of the language of a country is the same as the person with poor eye-sight donning a pair of spectacles—for truly a new world is opened up to one's view.

"AMERICANS, AWAKE TO LANGUAGE NEEDS!"

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AMERICA'S NEED FOR THE FUTURE!"

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR THE 'AIR AGE'!"

A Unit in German Grammar-Review

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EDITOR'S NOTE: This contribution to our series on the unit lesson plans furnishes valuable help to our teachers and prospective teachers of German. While it is called a Unit in German Grammar-Review, the teachers of the other languages will find most helpful and practical hints in conducting such a lesson and avoiding dull, purposeless repetition. We are glad to take this occasion to thank our colleague, Dr. Harold Lenz, Assistant Professor of German and Registrar at Queens College, for this fine presentation.

IN HIS introduction to the series of which this article is a part, Professor Winthrop Rice gave a flexible definition of the term "unit lesson plan."* Since variation in size was permitted, the author has chosen a small unit for the following presentation. Lesson plans for general consumption have a tendency to be too large, vague, and demonstratively impressive. Surely we can benefit more from plans with limited content and with sufficient detail to be practicable in the time at our disposal.

The author will first portray the actual classroom action and conversation which he plans to bring about in his class. This presentation will be followed by a statement of the principles the author had in mind. Finally, he will give in outline form the brief personal notes that constitute the teacher's actual lesson plan.

It is assumed that the class has reached the critical "intermediate" level. It was fully acquainted with the essentials of German grammar during the beginners course and has acquired a moderate active vocabulary. The aim of the intermediate course in this instance is to extend the student's vocabulary and his ability to understand German by means of reading and by intensive review of grammar. The class has just been reading Erich Kästner's "Die verschwundene Miniatur." The teacher now wishes to lead the class into a review of relative clauses. With clear intent he has not advised his class of this in advance. Before they can develop a conscious resistance to the grammar work, they are in the midst of it:

Teacher: Mr. Jones, you did not answer my question correctly, and I believe it was because you did not understand the original text. Please give me in your own words, in English, the full content of sentence 1, page 13: "Storm blickte zu Külz hinüber, der den Rücken beugte und seine Karte schrieb."

Jones: "Storm looked over to Külz, bent over and wrote his card." 

Teacher: Who can tell us what is wrong with this answer? Mr. Smith?

Smith: Külz is bending over and writing the card, not Storm.

Teacher: That's right. And how do you know?

Smith: Well, *der* refers to Külz.

* Winthrop H. Rice, "General Considerations on Unit Lesson Plans in Modern Language Teaching," *MLJ*, XXVIII, (Dec., 1944), 650-654. A good statement of the more limited conventional definition of "unit plan" is given in the *Encyclopedia of Modern Education*, H. Rivlin and H. Schueler, Philosophical Library, N. Y., 1944; 859 ff.

Teacher: Yes, *der* gives us the key to the right answer. What is the grammatical name for a word like *der*? *Smith:* A relative pronoun.

Teacher: Do you see, Mr. Jones? You did not get the true meaning because you missed the relative pronoun and the relative clause. Suppose I read the sentence this way: "Külz blickte zu Storm hinüber, der den Rücken beugte und seine Karte schrieb." What does it mean now? Mr. Mitchell?

Mitchell: Now it means that Storm is writing the card.

Teacher: That's true. But how do we know that *der* refers to Storm now and not to Külz?

Smith: I remember now: a relative pronoun refers to the nearest preceding noun of the same number and gender.

Teacher: Correct. That's a regular habit of relative pronouns. Can you repeat that rule, Mr. Jones?

Jones: Yes "A relative pronoun refers, etc."

Teacher: Good. Now let's get away from theory again and back to practice. Who can give me in his own words, in English, the full meaning of this sentence: "Steinhövel schickt einen Riesen, der in Copenhagen als Tiroler erscheint"? Mr. Brown?

Brown: "Steinhövel sends a giant, who appears as a Tirolean in Copenhagen."

Teacher: Is that right, Mr. Jones? Please explain.

Jones: Yes, because *der* is masculine singular and therefore must refer to *Riese*, the nearest masculine singular noun.

Teacher: Fine. And now tell me: how do you know that *der* is a relative pronoun?

Jones: Well—eh—it looks like one.

Teacher: By what features can you identify it? Mr. Brown?

Brown: It is declined like the definite article *der*.

Teacher: Except?

Brown: Except in the genitive cases and in the dative plural. In these cases *en* is added.

Teacher: Gentlemen, let's play safe and write down the declension in our notebooks (writes on blackboard as he speaks):

	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	Plural
Nom.	der	die	das	die
Gen.	dessen	deren	dessen	deren
Dat.	dem	der	dem	denen
Acc.	den	die	das	die

Can we identify the relative pronoun another way?

Smith: Yes, by the position of the verb. When the inflected verb stands last in its clause, it must be due either to a conjunction or to a relative pronoun.

Teacher: Good. Now let us apply these principles in complete sentences. Mr. Smith, will you please step up to the side blackboard over there? Thank you. Now as soon as we have arrived at a complete, correct sentence, please write it on the blackboard for us. I shall ask questions in German. Members of the class are asked to answer, using relative clauses. First let us use nominative cases, as in this example: "Wer ist Herr Külz?" Answer: "Herr Külz ist der Herr, der die Karte schreibt." Here is the first question: "Wer ist Herr Storm?" Herr Brown?

Brown: Herr Storm ist der Herr, der zu Külz blickt.

Teacher: "Hinüberblickt" ist besser. Herr Smith, schreiben Sie, bitte. Wiederholen Sie, bitte, Herr Brown.

Brown: Herr Storm ist der Herr, der zu Külz hinüberblickt.

Teacher: Gut. Zweite Frage: Wer ist Fräulein Trübner? Herr Mitchell?

Mitchell: Fräulein Trübner ist die junge Dame, die am Nebentisch sitzt.

Teacher: Ist das richtig, Herr Williams?

Williams: Ja, Herr Lehrer.

Teacher: Schön. Schreiben Sie bitte, Herr Smith. Wiederholen Sie, Herr Mitchell.

Mitchell: Fräulein Trübner ist die junge Dame, die am Nebentisch sitzt.

Teacher: Dritte Frage: Welches Zeitungsblatt liest Herr Storm? Herr Jones?

Jones: Das Zeitungsblatt, das der Bote bringt.

Teacher: Ja, das ist richtiges Deutsch. Aber was bedeutet Ihr Satz, Herr Jones?

Jones: The newspaper which the messenger brings.

Teacher: That's right. But did Mr. Jones follow my instructions? Mr. Brown?

Brown: No, he used the relative in the accusative case instead of the nominative.

Teacher: Yes. I had asked for the nominative, but in his sentence *das* is the object of *bringt*.

Do you see that, Mr. Jones?

Jones: Yes, I see. How is this? Das Zeitungsblatt, das auf dem Tisch liegt.

Teacher: Ja, so ist es richtig. Nun wiederholen Sie bitte die Antwort und geben Sie uns einen ganzen Satz. Ich habe gefragt: Welches Zeitungsblatt liest Herr Storm? Schreiben Sie bitte, Herr Smith.

Jones: Herr Storm liest das Zeitungsblatt, das auf dem Tisch liegt.

Teacher: Fine. Now please answer the following questions, using relative pronouns in the genitive case, as in this example: Wer ist Herr Storm? Answer: Herr Storm ist der Herr, dessen Ohren sehr hoch am Kopf sitzen. Nun die erste Frage: Wer ist Herr Külz? Herr Williams?

Williams: Herr Külz ist der Herr, dessen Anzug kariert ist.

Teacher: Richtig. Wiederholen Sie, bitte, und schreiben Sie, Herr Smith.

(Questions and answers continue until the teacher feels the class has fully understood the application of the principles. Then the teacher gives a home assignment—presumably in the review grammar book—affording further exercise in the application of the principles and referring to the explanation of these principles in the book. The next class meeting may profitably begin with a short test employing the same question-answer procedure or pairs of sentences to be connected by relative pronouns.)

The author had the following principles in mind in planning this lesson:

1. *Motivation* needs to be especially strong in a review grammar lesson, because this is "old stuff" to the students. They must be confronted with a realistic situation showing the need for accurate knowledge of the grammar point in question. It is the teacher's first task to bring about a suitable situation; he must have his plans laid when he comes to class. In the instance of this lesson he put the question involving the crucial point to a student who frequently gives wrong answers. The wrong answer provided a suitable opening. If the answer had been correct, the opening could still have been obtained by asking the student to explain how he arrived at the answer. Good motivation should be inherent in everything we do in class (if it isn't, then we are probably doing something that is worthless), and all we need to do is bring it to the student's attention in a direct and simple way.

2. *Presentation* of the grammar point can and should be brief in a review lesson, otherwise it will be a bore. A few complete examples are enough. Just three are used here (the original sentence, a transposed version of the same, and a new sentence).

3. *Statement of the rule* can and should also be brief, for the same reasons. It is given just once here and is repeated immediately, but only once.

4. *The entire functional pattern* of the grammar point must be made clear, *i.e.* not only the rule of reference, but also the declension of the relative pronoun and the word order of relative clauses. In this way review grammar often goes beyond the piecemeal detail work of the elementary course and teaches the student the larger structural complexes without which facility in the use of the language is impossible. (This applies equally to reading, understanding the spoken word, speaking, and writing.) Of course, the further ramifications of the pattern, such as the variant *welcher*, the indefinite relatives *was* and *wer*, the prepositional relatives *worauf*, *worin*, *wozu*, etc., would be confusing here and should be reviewed and drilled after the basic pattern (antecedent—pronoun—verb) has been fully drilled.

5. *Drill* in the review lesson needs to be enlivened by every means at the teacher's command. The element of discovery, of acquiring a new power of expression, which usually operates in the elementary course, no longer works automatically in the intermediate class. Our linguistic sophomores cannot be expected to respond to systematic drivel about tables, chairs, pencils, *et al.* Completion exercises of the conventional sort do not provide any greater intellectual challenge, nor do they drill the entire functional pattern. Translation exercises are methodologically of questionable value. The indicated procedure is to apply the functional pattern directly and actively in the specific situation at hand. In the lesson before us, the class was in the midst of the situation of the opening chapters of *Die verschwundene Miniatur*. The story is amusing, reasonably mature, adequately interesting, and is prosaic enough to be used for our procedure without offending the aesthetic intelligentsia of the class. The students can be expected to know enough of the content of the story and of pertinent vocabulary to form complete sentences about it. To insure systematic coverage of all the cases of the pronoun and to proceed from the simple to the more difficult, the teacher asks questions requiring answers with relative clauses first with pronouns in the nominative case, then in the genitive case, and so on. Opportunities for giving the situation a humorous twist should be seized avidly. In fact, "everything goes" can be the order of the day, just so long as the functional pattern is used systematically and correctly, and so long as the class stays interested. It is obvious that such a procedure requires careful preparation and sound training in the art of asking questions on the part of the teacher. The author has found the effort required for this richly rewarding.

6. The remaining pedagogical procedures in this lesson are, I believe, conventional practice. They are: (a) Grammar explanations and terminology in the vernacular; (b) Questions in the foreign language answered

in the foreign language; (c) Information elicited from the student rather than supplied by the instructor; (d) Participation of the entire class encouraged by putting some questions to specific students and by asking for volunteer answers for others; (e) Using visual aids, in this case the blackboard; (f) Having students use the side blackboard rather than the one in back of the teacher; (g) Making sure that only correct material appears on the blackboard; (h) Proceeding inductively from the particular to the general; (i) Returning to call upon the student who has made a mistake *after* he has heard several correct examples.

In summary, three points stand out as factors to be stressed in a grammar review lesson: motivation, crystallization of the functional pattern, and drill of the pattern in a stimulating situation. If these points are understood by the teacher, and if he is well trained, his personal notes for this unit lesson can be limited to the following lesson plan:

1. Ask Jones to do sentence 1, p. 13.
2. Ask for analysis of the relative clause in this sentence.
3. Motivate by pointing out results of error.
4. Elicit rule from class by further examples.
5. Put declension of relative pronoun on blackboard.
6. Establish full pattern: antecedent—pronoun—verb.
7. Drill by getting class to use: "Külz ist der Herr, der . . .," "Storm ist der Herr, dessen . . .," etc. Situation: *Miniatur*, Chapt. 2.
8. Home assignment: Grammar book, pp. . . . , Exercises, pp. . . .

(Allow 30 minutes for lesson)

An inexperienced teacher, of course, will need to write out his examples and questions in detail in advance. Needless to say, every student will benefit from the lesson in proportion to the care with which it is organized, worded, and timed.

"AMERICANS, AWAKE TO LANGUAGE NEEDS!"

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AMERICA'S NEED FOR THE FUTURE!"

What Is Our Job?¹

WILLIAM MILWITZKY

President, National Federation of Modern Language Teachers

I THOUGHT it would be easy to put into concrete sentences,—into *sententiae*, rather,—the sum-total résumé of a whole generation of modern language teaching. “Of course,” I said to myself, “I would begin with the unworried planlessness that pervaded the instruction we who are no longer young received as college students. That sort of planlessness is described, and yet was left untouched, by the report of the Committee of Twelve, in 1898,—a report, by the way, that eventually lead to, yet was not cured by, the findings and recommendations, authoritative and otherwise, throughout the first quarter of the nineteen hundreds. And then came the publications of the Modern Language Survey, the 17 volumes bearing the comprehensive title: *Publications of the American and Canadian Committee on Modern Languages* (Macmillan 1924–1931). We all remember the so-called “Coleman Report” and the imposition upon us all of the “reading objectives” (I used the word imposition advisedly, in its double meaning and its *double entendre*).

It seemed to me, as I reviewed haphazardly in my mind the various phases and periods of modern language teaching since before 1900, that I could easily and pleasantly establish from my mental meanderings, first, a moral for the present-day teaching of the foreign languages; secondly, some caution and some counsel to the language teachers of tomorrow; thirdly, springing from a set of painfully learned “don’ts,” an intimation of helpful classroom procedures for the teacher-in-service (which means all of us, young and old); and lastly, a minimum list of desirable prerequisites for the candidate-teacher-in-training.

So I thought. Leisurely and vaguely. But when at last I sat me down to fashion these *sententiae* into an unlengthy address that would be neither a bore nor a burden to my listeners,—I became apprehensive. I began to ask myself whether, really, any topic I touched upon had not been brought out sufficiently before; whether any advice I could offer had not already evolved in the minds of language teachers through their own study and teaching experience. “What,” I now wondered, “could I offer that a teacher did not have, or could not get, within his own realm?”

Lost in these pessimistic forebodings, I thought of a great friend of mine, now a famous historian, who had come to Europe to pursue his studies in higher Romance Philology. He had brought with him his *magnum opus*, on

¹ Adapted from an address before the Modern Languages section of the Eleventh Annual Educational Conference of the Syracuse University, July 18, 1945.

which he had spent several years of research,—only to be told by the master of the seminar that he had taken a very long run in order to storm a wide-open door.

Then, as I visualized the challenge that I would have to face, I suddenly thought of that other teacher, of the long, long ago, making his address before *his* challengers, no—his accusers. I thought of Socrates and of his “*Apology*.”

Well, no sooner had I thought of him, than I felt reassured. The purpose of this paper became clear to me: Is it not to take stock, together and in common, in a sort of Socratic way, of what we foreign language people are doing,—can and, no doubt, will do—to help prepare American youth for this post-war world? Let us not be casual about that great “world-job” ahead, and about our share in that job. Whatever we are doing must in the near future become, if it isn’t already, an integral part of the post-war scheme of things. The times are no more for “business as usual,” not even for “educational business” as usual. That need for a realistic attitude was true also for Socrates’ days; he saw it and he tried to teach in the light of what he saw,—or rather of what he foresaw.

Let me quote one little section of the appeal Socrates is represented as making. (What, in parentheses, is more appropriate than quoting Plato in the city that recalls the memory of Archimedes and Theocritos?) I am translating from the *Guillaume Budé* editions.

The immortal teacher is pleading not for his life, but for a just understanding of his aims, his ideals, and his anxieties in behalf of Greek youth. His accusers, you will remember, through their spokesman Meletos, have proclaimed: “*Sōkratēs adikei*”—Socrates is guilty!” “Indiscreetly,” says Plato’s text, “he delves into what is happening upon earth and in the heavens; he enhances the evil doctrine and teaches others to do likewise.” Added to this charge is that other grave indictment that he is taking money for his lessons,—which latter was not really quite true. To answer this double challenge, Socrates brings the testimony of Kallias, son of Hipponikos, who, to translate the philosopher-teacher’s own purported words, “has as a single individual paid to the sophists a larger remuneration than all the others taken together for the education of his two sons.”

Let us hear Socrates. “Kallias, I said to him, if instead of two sons you had to raise a pair of colts or of calves, we should know very well to whom to entrust them and whom to hire, for a salary, so that there may be developed in them all that their nature warrants. We should select some trainer of horses or some farmer. But we are dealing with human beings. To whom, tell me, are you planning to entrust them? Who is able enough to develop (in them) those qualities necessary for a man and a citizen? I suppose you have thought it over, since you have two sons to bring up. Tell me, yes or no, is there the man we need?

‘Why of course there is,’ he replied.

So,—who is it? Where does he come from? And what's the price of his lessons?

'Socrates,' he said to me, 'it is Evenos, of Paros; he charges 5 mnās!'

After which I thought to myself that Evenos was a privileged person if really he possesses this art, and teaches it at such moderate rates. As for myself, I should be very proud indeed and quite satisfied with myself, if I could do as much. But frankly speaking, *ō andres Athenaioi*, I have no such knowledge. . . !"

Now I know perfectly that I am not Socrates, for all his claims of "having no such knowledge." And I cannot believe that anyone would mix hemlock in my drinks. However, we all, as teachers, of our American young men and young women, whether in the field of Foreign Languages or of English, of History or of Journalism, of the Sciences (so far as I know) or of Mathematics, of Singing or of Sewing, and on all levels, from the university post-graduate down to the elementary school grades,—let us remember the injunction Socrates put upon his witness Kallias: "It is human beings we are dealing with now!" And, like that ancient sage, let us ask *ourselves* before *others* do it, "Are we sure *we* are able enough to develop in those we undertake to teach those qualities necessary for the development of the man and the citizen?"

I should like to keep for our present discussion the two terms "man" and "citizen"; but I would, for our purposes, give to the one the semantic extension of "the man on or for the job, the individual as a master in his profession," and to the other that of the "social-minded educator as an influence in his community." It is only the first of these Socratic requisites, the *ανθρωπίνη*, that we are here, restrictedly, concerned with.

First of all, what is our job? To say, "It is to train students for the mastery of the written and spoken foreign language," as one city syllabus has it, is too much; and we know it is. But to say, simply, that it is "*to teach the foreign language*" is not enough; that phrase covers too many variations and quite a multitude of sins. Let me illustrate what I mean by three incidents drawn from my personal experience.

Several years ago, a young lady asked me for private lessons in French; her employers, color chemists with international connections, had suggested that if she knew some French they would send her to Brussels to be in charge of their European office. I prepared a special set of French lessons, using no textbook other than the foreign correspondence on file in her New Jersey office, and no grammar terms at all. I asked her to verify whether there was a preponderance of words with a common ending, and she pointed to the number of *ez's*; I asked her to abstract the *ez's*, and recognize or guess the meaning contained in what was left, and since the commercial and chemical terms were pretty much the same in both English and French verbs, that lesson was both smooth and satisfactory. So were

the next lessons, too, for she grasped quickly the idea that if the ending *ez* inquired what her employers were doing, the change to an *ons* would give them the answer. I need not go on, except to say that within 3 months she "got the job."

Shortly after that episode, an elderly chance acquaintance, also a chemist, wished to visit certain mineralogical regions in Mexico without arousing undue curiosity. For this very special purpose, a restricted scientific vocabulary, a memorized set of common phrases, and two months of bi-weekly lessons proved amply sufficient.

These two incidents point to one underlying factor: a definite, strong motivation clearly understood by both teacher and student, a factor that is so seldom present, or even implied in classroom instruction. (Easy is the transition from the private experience I have just cited to a discussion of the intensive ASTP courses we hear so much about; but I shall sidestep that.)

My third example has war as a background, the First World War, and shows what basic stupidity may result when there is no motivation. I was stationed in Camp Merritt, on very special morale duty, under the Y.M.C.A., and a small part of my job was to supervise the teaching of French. The first class that I visited was in charge of a person whose textbook was nationally talked about, though not much used outside of her own school; and what I found her teaching was: *le crayon, la plume . . . genders!*

Now Merritt was an embarkation camp, with a population that was completely renewed every three or four days, so that the three or four lessons, at most, could not get the men very far in their knowledge of French. I demanded a change in lesson content, and with the next group she did much better,—she taught them to count; but even this improvement did not seem to me a step toward winning the war. The upshot was that we all ended by teaching soldiers and officers alike to sing *Frère Jacques!* And when there was still time they learned to sing *La Casquette du père Bugeaud*. Thousands upon thousands marched to their embarkation with a military tread to the tune of *ding-ding-dong!*²

And so—we are back to the question: What is our job?

If we had no answer ourselves, we could get it from a mass of expositions, warnings, counsels and appeals that have appeared as articles within the last year or so in all sorts of publications, in *Parents' Magazine*; *Fortune*; the one called *America*, with its attractively titled "Democracy Lacks Languages"; in *Readers' Digest* and *Coronet*; in *Science News Letter*, *The*

² A reference to these "sings" may be found in the book of travel impressions "*La Passante émerveillée*," by the famous *diseuse* Yvette Guilbert, (Paris, Grasset, 1929) who not only accepted my invitation, but from morning until past midnight talked, sang, and recited to thousands in halls and hospital wards.

Christian Science Monthly, and the less known *Fortnightly*. Most often the heading is some variation or other of "Languages in a Hurry," but in the journal called, simply, *Science*, in last year's October issue, you may find some valuable hints to our question in an article entitled, believe it or not, "Utility of Major Languages in Phytopathology." And what is funnier, or more *risqué*, in *Esquire*, than their French and Spanish lessons? We have also read, have we not, the discussions in our educational magazines, the *N.E.A. Journal*, *Education*, *School and Society*, and so forth, down to the *Junior Scholastic*.³ But whether we accept the hints and the advice contained in the output I have mentioned, without exhausting the list, or whether,—which is more likely and more helpful—we merely study them, the answer to our question must not come from them. Not even the *ex cathedra* lessons handed down to us in seminars while we are teachers-in-training, nor the *obiter dicta*, however well founded and well meant, of the older mentors in our field, should constitute the all-in-all definition of our job.

Far be it from me to minimize such wise counsel, warnings, aids to classroom procedures, never-failing proffers of teaching and learning aids that are presented to us, at such little outlay to ourselves, for each of the four languages and for what is so persistently called "General Language." We find many a practical hint and many more conclusive statements in our own professional publications, *The French Review*, *The German Quarterly*, *Das Deutsche Echo*, *Italica*, *Hispania*; in *Modern Language Notes* and *Modern Language Forum*, in the always interesting and somewhat remote journal *Language*; we find something of value in the leaflets, even, put out by the none-too-idealistic publishers of textbooks; but above all, in the publication that applies and appeals (in both senses of that word) to our combined needs as modern language teachers, the magazine for which we of the *National Federation of Modern Language Teachers* are responsible: *The Modern Language Journal*.

Yet, even these publications, all their teachings and their exhortations, must not, in our final analysis of our job, formulate for us the meaning and the strivings of it. Those must come from within each of us, individually. They must, I repeat, surge to our private autogenous consciousness after a kind of solemn examination of conscience. When we are challenged, by ourselves, by our betters, by those we teach or those who hire us, to stand up for what we are doing and trying to do, we must, as best we can, each of us for himself, formulate our own answer. I say "*as best we can*," for such a confession of faith on our part, singly from each of us modern language teachers, does not come easily to our lips. It must not be glib, or stereotyped, or shrewd; it must be self-searching, complete, and individually

³ For a complete and most closely studied list of articles see Professor Rice's "Annotated Bibliography" in the May number of the *Modern Language Journal*.

honest. All that comes hard. For once, the old German proverb does not hold, "Wess das Herz voll ist, geht der Mund über."

To make such a confession of faith individually complete and honest we must begin from our individual beginnings. We must visualize and assess the steps and the circumstances that cajoled, quite likely herded us into our field; the motives that kept and nurtured us in it. The diet we prepared and administered through our teaching,—was it pap that merely stuffed, or life-and-spirit-producing nourishment? How many pupils, for instance, did we turn into disciples?

Fortunately or unfortunately, as the end must prove, such an answer, does not come cheap either. There, is first of all, the time and the cost of our apprenticeship. No one can, surely, no one should, undertake to teach a language who does not know it and has not, in one way or another, learned to teach it. By knowing the language and how to teach it, I mean the feeling at home in both phases, in the same way that the expert swimming teacher feels at home in the water. Occasionally he must know how to "dive," as when a student, either a brilliant or a mischievous one, unexpectedly propounds a conundrum that may actually contain a far-reaching linguistic problem. I remember one such instance. A pupil had asked his second-year Spanish teacher why *Don Quijote* had a *j* while in English the name of the benighted hero was spelled with an *x* and was so pronounced by many. The teacher was stumped. It never occurred to him that *Méjico* and *Mexico*, *Texas* and *Las Tejas* presented the same problem. He missed the extension of interest his class might have received, the added *empujo* from the newly found connection between ancient Spanish and modern America. Of course, if that teacher had been familiar with older texts, he would have come across a number of *x*'s that in the Spanish of today are represented by *j*'s, and would have known their sound-value. In his studies or his curiosity about the language he is teaching he might even have found still living survivals of ancient Spanish in which there is no jota sound at all; in Judeo-Spanish, for instance, where *dijo* is *dišo* and *hijo* is *išo* or even *fišo*, where you do not say *yo traje* but *yo truše*; and where by the way, *usted* as a mode of address is entirely unknown.

It is too bad that acquaintance with the roots from which spring the very forms that we are to teach, or that wandering among the by-paths and hidden groves within our foreign language field, is so often discouraged and advised against, in those who are preparing to teach the "practical" foreign language. They are told that that is "philology" and should interest, or rather, should serve, the candidates only for the Ph.D.

Which reminds me. Some years ago at an important conference of educators and administrative officers, the warning was voiced by one of the supervisors that the Newark, New Jersey Modern Language examinations were not only too difficult but too irrelevant, that "questions in philology

were asked that have nothing to do with high school classwork." When I asked for an explanation, I was reminded that one question had been about the origin of accent marks. I knew what was being referred to. From the little French prose piece, that was to be translated into good and what I call "atmospheric" English, I had selected a few words with acutes, graves, and one circumflex over the word *bâiller* and had asked what could be said about and be drawn from the use of this *accent circonflexe*. Of course I now retorted to our carping friend that a candidate for a position to teach French in our Newark schools who does not even see that in *bâiller* the accent is over the *a*, that hence the *i* goes with the *ll*, is not welcome. For, what I always wished to test in applicants was not how many facts they had memorized about the foreign language, but whether they were sufficiently supplied with open-eyed attentiveness and some much needed imagination.

Of course that is not all that is required of us; it is only what the icing is to the cake. We must know swimmingly the language that we are to teach. We must be above the mere repetition of the rules and rigmaroles by means of which we were taught,—we of the older generation at least.

Take such a simple topic as that of the position of the modifying adjective in the Romance languages. It won't do to repeat, ever since the 16th century, that "the adjective usually follows the noun, and that the following few . . . always precede it." In the first place that rule has never been true, and secondly, that sort of teaching is not based on what the student can assimilate, on what will arouse in him further speculative imaginings. If he is a "good" scholar he will superimpose that rule upon what he has already stacked away in his memory; if he is a bad one, he will merely let it go at that. What does a rule mean to a student when it is negated by the word "usually"? It does not constitute an initial lesson,—it is the teacher's "know-it-all" statistics. And it is almost criminal, when certain classes of words are enumerated, to say "such terms as . . ."

A teacher who is not above imposing a rigmarole of that sort (let us continue about the adjective) will be stumped if an inquisitive or smart-aleck pupil should ask what real distinction is intended in the famous slogan of pre-war Italy: "*diputati cattolici—si; cattolici diputati—no.*"

Once in a class for teachers-in-service I asked for the translation of the simple phrase "The American national flag," and—what a to-do there was. An interesting example of what I am sure is a misapprehension and a mistranslation occurs in a work where only the surest and closest rendition was to be expected. I am speaking of the English version of Péguy's prose and verse by the Franco-American novelist Julian Green and his sister Anna. The imaginative and highly personal French author is speaking of the various epochs in ancient civilization and opposes *anciens anciens* to *les anciens chrétiens*, which latter the Greens translate by "the ancient Christians." Shouldn't they have said "the Christian ancients"?

It is only because the position of the adjective in the Romance languages must occur in the early stages of the modern language class that this grammar topic serves as an illustration of the need there is for the teacher to be above the re-statement of centuries-old rules. We must remember Socrates' warning to Kallias—"It is human beings we are dealing with." We must keep in mind that there are two ends to the line that connects the instructor to the "instructee," that what is clear, interesting or at times even stimulating to the one, is strange, by itself useless and indifferent, to the other. Here is a school anecdote, and a true one, that I think is to the point.

In one of our smaller industrial towns of New Jersey one high school teacher could and would teach only "out of the book," learnedly and with a sort of threatening approach; the result was that the dissatisfaction in the classroom reached her supervising principal. When she learned one day of his impending visit, she decided to mend her ways, at least that once, and prepared a lesson that she thought would reach and test the understanding, perhaps even the interest, of her pupils. At the end of her laboriously prepared exposition, beaming upon her watching supervisor, beaming upon her class, she asked, "Now, has anyone a question?"—Silence on the part of her pupils. "Hasn't anyone a question?" she persisted. Then one hand went up, that of a strapping foot-baller. "So what?" was his question.

An illustration of what, with that kind of teaching approach, happens to the good scholar is offered by the incident of which the Dutch scholar Adriaan Barnouw of Columbia was the witness. During a long official tour through his country's colonies, he and the Governor visited the newest of the inland high schools. Everything was prepared for their coming,—even the lessons had been rehearsed, in anticipation.

"What is the shape of the earth?" asked the teacher in Dutch. "Is it round like an orange or is it flat like a cake?"

"The earth is like an orange," dutifully replied the student, in perfect Dutch.

"How can you prove it?" continued the teacher.

"When I stand on the ocean brink," the well drilled student began, "I see first of all . . ." and so on and so on, still in perfect Dutch, although he had never in all his young life seen the ocean brink.

"Good," said the teacher. "But now," he continued meaningfully, "when you go back to your native village, how would you tell it, in your native language, to those boys who *will* not come to our school, so that they too would believe the truth?"

"Sir," replied the good but honest student, "when I go back to my native village, I do not believe it either."

Something similar, and due to the same faulty pedagogy, happened to Dr. Stephen Duggan, Director of the Institute of International Education. On the way home from Russia and Japan, he visited the Philippines, and in one school, the best student was rehearsed to greet the visitor in behalf of

the student body. Facing Dr. Duggan squarely and solemnly, he said, "Sir, or Madam, as the case may be!"

Well, these are more than merely good stories, even if they are true. But let us, for another few moments, return to our lesson about the adjectives and through it come back to what it illustrates. In one of my own first semester high school French classes I was attempting to make the young people conscious of the French *l* as distinguished from their own, and had put on the board the phrase *le ciel bleu*, since one of the girls in the class was rehearsing Massenet's *Elégie*. In the midst of our tongue drill, actually out of a *blue sky*, one student, the best in the class, asked, "How come—*ciel bleu*?"

Now, I did not begin with "Adjectives designating physical qualities such as size, color . . . etc. This, as I said before, would not prove true, and, what is more to the point, it would not have been basically helpful. In an advanced class I should, probably, have shown the varying position of the adjectives, with their varying emphasis. I might then have quoted the refrain and the opening lines of Lecomte de Lille's *Les Elfes*.

"Couronnés de thym et de marjolaine
Les elfes joyeux dansent sur la plaine.
Du sentier des bois aux daims familier
Sur un noir cheval sort un chevalier"
.....
-un noir cheval.

But this was a beginner's class. "To how many of you," I asked, "does such an order of words: *le ciel bleu* seem strange, or perhaps even funny?" Most hands went up. "Does such a word order exist in English?" I continued. There was incredulity to begin with, but soon, following a few leading hints, one pupil recalled the magazine *The House Beautiful*, another, at the mention of Longfellow, quoted "This is the forest primeval," and still another who remembered her Shakespeare gave us the "retort courteous."—"Very well," I said, "three examples are not enough to prove that the French language is a strange one. Let us put that question on our classroom bulletin of "Unsolved Problems," and when you have, within the next three days, brought more English examples, we shall have our lesson on "The Position of the French Adjectives and of their Nouns."—Within three days one pupil brought 34 cases of the post-noun adjective in English; she was high-church Episcopalian and got many of her instances from the liturgy. One girl in that class came from Romanian stock, and I made use of that circumstance. "Is there any language," I asked, "in which even the definite article is put after its noun?"—When there was, as we say, no reaction, I made that pupil bring the answer from home.

I have spoken of the line, at once emotional and intellectual, that connects,—when you don't get the "wrong number,"—the teacher and the

pupil. What so often and so drastically breaks that connection, is the phraseology used to express the grammatical concept. I remember my own bewilderment, many years ago, when I was taught, through Edgren's Grammar, page 186 §320 that "The Subjunctive is used as described below,

I. In SUBORDINATE CLAUSES to qualify the notion of their verb phrase, with reference to some preceding expression, as not realized . . . etc.

That was just so much mumbo-jumbo to me then and I have ever since been watchful lest I perpetrate similar mystifications in my teaching. In recent years I was reminded of Edgren's *Compendious Grammar* and amused in the memory of it, as I plodded through the 600 and some odd (and "odd" is the word) pages of James Joyce's *Finnegans Wake*.⁴

In my notes as supervisor, I have again and again marked with an unpunctuated FW (*Finnegans Wake*) a certain kind of text and a certain type of teacher. In this connection I must touch upon an issue that Professor Rice has raised in the October 1943 number of the *Modern Language Journal*, namely the use of pedagogic phraseology. I shall not debate that issue with him here. I shall merely indicate the limitations I would put upon the use of traditional nomenclature in classes that have little knowledge and less understanding of such terms, and still less use for them, in the literal as well as the slangy meaning of that phrase.—Once upon a time we would have nothing to do with classes that were unprepared to take what we chose to give them,—to take it and like it. We are no longer privileged to entertain such an attitude. Fortunately. To summarize what Dean Henry Grattan Doyle has again and again been stressing, the teaching of foreign languages is and must now be part of the democratic process.

Here is an illustration, on the most elementary level again, of what I mean about traditional nomenclature. We use glibly the term *partitive*, in the earliest of our lessons, to cover and clarify an idea that is most complex, since it is partly psychological and mostly philosophical. For this so-called *partitive idea*, as a subject *per se* in his English language classes, the American student has no equivalent. It is actually a "foreign" idea to him. Of course the foreign language textbook has it both as an idea and as an expression, and the teacher is helpless; he cannot "prestidigitate" it away. But he feels guilty. And so, again, following the book and ages-old rote, he offers a choice of two explanations, each of which is worse than the other: "The *partitive idea* is a whole part of which has been taken . . ." which is such nonsense, semantically, that it isn't even *Finnegans Wake*. Or, that "the *partitive expression* is the equivalent of the English *some or any*"—which is proven false and incomplete as the lessons go on.

Or take the *names* as opposed to the *uses* of the various verb forms, of the *conditional* for instance, or modal verbs.⁵

⁴ For a passage of particular cruelty to that sort of teacher see pages 268-269.

⁵ For an additional discussion of the difference between *Time* and *Tense*, see Professor Fernand Vial's article in the June issue of *PMLA*, "Le Bergsonisme de Paul Claudel."

But why go on? Except to add this: My more than 40 years' experience with classes and with their instructors leads me to suspect that it is not on the high school level alone that grammatical name calling is pernicious, that a term must be made clear through its content, must be instinctively recognized by the learner, before it can be used by the instructor as a nail on which to hang further hand-me-downs.

I am vividly reminded of a few lines in the self-revealing testimony by the retired philosopher, George Santayana, in the second volume of his *Persons and Places*. "I am told," he writes, toward the end of *The Middle Span*, "that in my first five years I was a very bad lecturer (supposing we change that to *teacher*?) . . . I can well believe," he continues, "that my pupils didn't understand, and gathered only vague notions of the authors I discussed. The undergraduates were thinking only of examinations and relied on summaries . . . I think, however, that lectures, like sermons, are usually unprofitable. Philosophy (supposing again we change that to *teaching*?) can be communicated only by being evoked; the pupil's mind must be engaged *dialectically in the discussion* (the italics are mine). Otherwise, all that can be taught is . . . phrases. . . . To conceive what those phrases mean or could mean would require (an) imagination in the public which cannot be demanded. . . ."

And Santayana is speaking of his supposedly mature philosophy students at Harvard.

Yes indeed, we modern language teachers must have the two qualities which, by direct statements and by innuendo (I like the portemanteau word *insinuating*) I have tried to present by enlarging upon the semantic implications in the word that Plato uses—*anthrōpinē*—to designate the inner human make-up.

First, we modern language teachers must not be willing to undertake the teaching of others before we are, in the words attributed to Socrates, "proud and quite satisfied" with ourselves and not until we are sure that in teaching our pupils we are "able to develop in them *all that their nature warrants*,"—in Socratic humility, of course.

Secondly, we modern language teachers must be learned enough, wise and imaginative enough, to make our own, self-engendered spontaneous lessons reach down into the student's inner "grasping machinery" so that he may not only follow such inspiring lessons without inner resistance or passivity, but will, on the contrary, be stimulated into expecting pleasure as well as profit from the lessons still to come. And that, my fellow-teachers, demands more years of preparation than Normal School or college can offer. It demands years of sacrifice and of abnegation.

Heaven forbid that I should ever claim I had studied, and traveled, and accepted privations of all sorts, with the set purpose of approaching the ideal and yet practical objectives I have insisted upon. Or that I had always

attained them. I was gripped irresistibly by the example of, and by my unending admiration for, the masters who were so good to me,—by Todd and by Cohn, by Lanman and Toy, by Gaston Paris above all, and by Adolf Tobler, to mention only the noblest among them. In my enthusiasm, reckless or otherwise, I gave no thought to having to make a living some day. But eventually I found myself very happy indeed, in my job, my classes, my career, my home life, my community, and among my fellow teachers.

I shall conclude in a grossly materialistic way. I have said several times that such preparation toward success as a teacher on the job and toward happiness as an individual does not come cheap. Well, let us see to it that our Boards of Education and our college trustees do not take us for cheap hirelings and at cheap hire. However, when all of us shall be what all of us should be, that too will change.

He dicho.

"AMERICANS, AWAKE TO LANGUAGE NEEDS!"

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR THE 'AIR AGE'!"

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AMERICA'S NEED FOR THE FUTURE!"

The Workshop Program: Demonstrating the Value of the Language Laboratory

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(Author's summary.—THE WORK SHOP was established by the writer at Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Alabama at the beginning of the school year 1943-44. Its purpose is to supplement and activate the program of language teaching. Its founding has been justified by proving the truth of its slogan: "It brings languages to life because it brings life to languages!")

IT WAS spring, and whether of 1943 or 1643, the fancies of our students were turning in the usual direction for spring fancies. And for the girls, at least, this was "aided and abetted" by the presence of a unit of the Army Air Corps. Even the men students were not turning noticeably to the acquisition of a commendable use of modern foreign languages, these languages being limited now to three: French, German, and Spanish. A few men faced overseas service, and they afforded a casual opportunity for experimentation.

In the beginning we did not have the Work Shop. What is more, we did not have any idea of such a thing. However, a foundation grant had enabled us to buy a portable phonograph and three sets of records, all of the spoken variety.¹

This unpretentious outlay of "laboratory equipment" was kept in a rarely-used room on the top floor of the college library. Few there were who knew of its existence or location. Students went there at odd hours. Some put on the earphones, and those who were sufficiently imaginative considered themselves "listening in on the enemy," and tried to get the content of incoming messages. And so it all began. Student interest was awakened, and this was step number one in the total process.

In the fall I moved the equipment to an unused basement room of the library. Outwardly this was to relieve the librarian and his staff of the worry of looking after the equipment. Practically it was to shift the responsibility of guardianship to one person, and I was willing to be that person. The Administration said out loud: "You have the *green light*. Go ahead!" Out loud, but not too loud: "A little money may be spent now and then." Thus came step number two, this time a little more surely, the creation of the "Record Room."

The Hilltop News, our college paper, featured the new movement with the headlines: "LINGUA-LABS TAKE LIFE" and an article which is so

¹ Oral Lessons in Practical Spanish, Portland Public Schools, Portland, Oregon, and the French and German Conversational Courses of Linguaphone Institute, New York City 20, New York. (Conversational Spanish records were added later, as was the course in Conversational Portuguese.)

much to the point as to be worth inserting, in part, at least. Indeed, student commentary so expresses student reaction to any bit of progress that this insertion renders an even more accurate picture than anything that I could say of the project. The personal element will serve to make the reader "run as he reads," that is to say, he will visualize his own language set-up and see exactly how this venture might be adapted to his own particular needs.

"Regular and supervised use of the 'Record Room' is now the rule and not the exception, according to announcement by Professor Robert S. Whitehouse. The room is for all who are engaged in the study of modern foreign languages. Professor Whitehouse in his announcement listed the schedule of linguaphone hours and praised colleagues for their cooperation in the work which marks the beginning of a new era in foreign-language acquisition.

"Dr. Antony Constans, according to the schedule, opens the laboratory at the 8:10 period daily and will be on hand particularly for those interested in French. Dr. Austin Prodoehl will aid students in the German department, while Professors McNeel and Cantrell will take turns at clarifying the differences between the Spanish of Old Castile and that in vogue in South and Central America, Mexico and the islands of the West Indies.

"Language versatility on the part of the individual members of the foreign-language staff will come to the fore in these "language labs." It can be foreseen with certainty that Dr. Prodoehl will recall the days when he taught French along with German, while Dr. Constans will be showing his "Majors" in French how Dante's *Inferno* sounds in Italian. Professor Whitehouse may at times demonstrate how readily Portuguese can be acquired by those who have already mastered French and Spanish.

"Professor McWilliams, now in the English department, will recall his language favorite, Spanish, and Dr. Sensabaugh, our expert in Latin American affairs, might be persuaded to reminisce on his recent year in Brazil.

"With this nucleus of a fully staffed language laboratory a reality, future progress is sure to be noted in no uncertain degree. It is but a step from *hearing* records in foreign languages to making student recordings in the laboratory, which is only one phase of what is implied in the term *visual and auditory aids*."

The way was thereby prepared for something broader and more lasting: the opening of THE WORK SHOP—A LANGUAGE LABORATORY. This was step number three in the program of activating the teaching of modern foreign languages.

To make this account of the Work Shop program of any practical value to the reader, it would be well to state that we operate at Birmingham-Southern College on the Quarter system, and classes meet five times a week.

Our schedule is arranged so that each section or class meets one period a week in the Work Shop. This means, then, that one fifth of the work is of a laboratory nature. Here the work is under the supervision and direction of the instructor regularly in charge of the class. I am of the opinion that two days a week might well be spent in the laboratory. However, it is also my belief that under the plan of two days a week, one man should be responsible for the endeavor and give all his time to the program. If all instructors were equally "on fire" with the idea, then they might all get equally fine results from the Work Shop, but there will always be some who will manifest only nominal enthusiasm for such work, and they should not be asked to devote more than the one hour a week as previously mentioned.

The matter of having the Work Shop program in the hands of all members of the department of foreign languages versus having it in the hands of one man may be a debatable question, and there are many points to be brought out on both sides. I believe that a proper beginning was made in our case, where one man fostered the idea, and then, in carrying it out, solicited the cooperation of all his fellow workers. This procedure brought out in detail the variety of approach that was possible, for every man worked out his own method. There was no "master plan" to follow. Each experience led to something new, and after the Work Shop had been in operation for six or seven weeks, I asked for an individual report from the members of the department. The report was to be threefold in scope: first, how the regularly assigned periods were handled; second, what was done in the "open house" periods;² and third, what changes or improvements were suggested.

There was great variety in all phases of these reports. Boiled down to a minimum, these are the facts worth revealing: The Work Shop program should be continued and even expanded. A larger stock of records should be acquired. The success of the "open house" period was questioned. (It has since been revised and remedied, a matter on which more will be written for future publication.) The fact that all members of the department were desirous of continuing the program constituted the principal reward for the efforts put forth on it during that "trial period."

The results obtained in the Work Shop were as varied as were the methods and personalities of the individual members of the language department. In the first place, it has already been said that there was no "master plan" to be followed. Every man was allowed (and encouraged) to find out for himself what he could accomplish. It is no wonder that the discoveries made were widely divergent. In one case the pupils listened to

² The "open house" period was created to enable unassigned students to "browse" in the Work Shop, listen to whatever records they liked, and to profit by an acquaintance with the *realia* placed on display there. However, the mere scheduling of the "open house" period did not cause students in any great number to visit the Work Shop.

the spoken recording and then commented on what they had understood. In another class they wrote down the words of which they were sure, and tried to write other words the best they could. Where there were questions and answers on the recordings, the answers were written down in the classes of one man. In another class the instructor gave the students a mimeographed sheet containing the questions, and it became the duty of the class to write down the answers as correctly as possible. Sometimes the vocabulary was given in advance, in which case the words were more easily recognized when they were heard later on.

It is well to think about the objectives desired before coming to any conclusion as to what method to employ. The acquisition of a vocabulary is without doubt necessary to any progress. This truth is becoming increasingly evident, and to that end almost anything is worth trying if it brings satisfactory results.

In the matter of how to use the phonograph advantageously, I have worked out a method in which I believe very strongly. It does more to *activate* the period in the Work Shop than anything else I have tried. It consists in having my students "take down on the run" what they hear. "In order to do that," you may be saying, "it would be necessary to use shorthand!" Well, ladies and gentlemen, that is exactly right! No, not exactly right, but nearly right, for in my classes we have developed a pseudo-shorthand system which works wonders for those who use it. To illustrate, let us consider a few sentences, remembering that while we have picked these out at random, the record continues to turn! The class in French hears, "Pour combien de personnes, madame?" Even if the pupils heard and remembered all five words of the question and could write them down, still they would be completely lost in the matter of what followed.

Having foreseen this situation early in the program of the Work Shop, I hit upon the following procedure, because even ahead of requiring it of my classes, I wanted to "take down on the run" what I heard. It was almost as difficult for me as it was for my pupils, and I declined, to put it mildly, to stand before them with a book or paper in hand while I was asking them to write down the spoken word. I was determined to write when they wrote. I began my study of the problem by putting down as quickly and accurately as possible the initial letter of each word as the record was being played. "Pour combien de personnes, madame?" I heard this and wrote, "P c d p m?" Sooner or later I realized that this "m" would become *cold*. It might register as madame, but it might also register in my memory as monsieur. The easiest way to remedy the situation was to create a "word-sign," which for madame became simply "mm." Other word-signs suggested themselves in due time.

Applying the method to German, we may consider this sentence, "Käthe ist fünf Jahre alt." "K i 5 J a." Or we may even write, "K ist 5

J alt," for there are pauses at times where one can write a word as easily as a single letter. There should be no penalty for being able to write the whole word,—except where this causes the pupil to lose out on two or three initial letters immediately following the whole word. Furthermore, there would be no point in using the letter "f" for "fünf," when "fünf" means "five," and the figure 5 can be written even more easily than the letter "f" itself.

If we have the Spanish sentence, "Cada ciudad debe tener alguna industria," then the initial letters may be given as "C c d t a i," or "C Θ (Greek letter *theta*) db tn alg ind." With some teachers there is always the question of how to handle the "c" before "e" and "i" in order to recall the "theta" sound or the "ss" sound, whichever may be the pronunciation of the teacher,—or the voice on the recording. Either of the above ways may be used, and my only feeling is that of opposition to the use of "th" as a symbol under any circumstance. Any teacher can build up a proper assortment of word-signs. Pupils themselves will often contribute their own, such as the letter "k" for the word "que," or "kn" for "quien." "Qn" for "quien" would do just as well, and for the verb "querer," the symbol "qu" is good for any form, any tense. The context will usually help in determining the correct form and tense, and after all, this method is to encourage the pupil to get something down in black and white, something to serve as a starter. If the sentences are long, we stop at the end of one, and in most instances play it again. Then a pupil is asked to "read it back" *by the initial letter*. As soon as he makes a mistake, he must stop, and another pupil reads to the end of the sentence, or until he makes a mistake, etc. Then another member of the class reads the full sentence, still by the initial letter, and the other pupils check their own written work. Before playing the record again, I allow time for whatever words the pupils can write either from memory or from reasoning, and then the record is played again, during which time everyone fills in to the best of his ability. Then we proceed to the next section of the record, writing down again according to the initial letter. There is another period of quiet for concentration, and then the record is played once or twice more, after which the papers are collected. Average students do average work, but good students turn in papers which are perfect, or which have only two or three words wrong in a lesson of seventy-five or a hundred words.

The skill that comes from the dictation lesson is one that helps definitely in the training of the ear. That it helps also in writing itself is equally true. Pupils are soon writing without any effort, and many forget that they used to spend time looking up these very words in the dictionary. Moreover, the pronunciation heard on the records is usually of such a standard as to bear the label *correct*. Now and then students detect a pronunciation which they do not care to copy, but that is nothing for which to condemn the record.

The disadvantage from which too many students have had to suffer in high school and college lies in the fact that they have heard only one voice, that of their teacher. Even when that one voice is good, it is still to be lamented that it is only one voice. Therefore, one of the most noticeable advantages of the program of the Work Shop is that it provides several voices and voice ranges. There are women as well as men to be heard in the recordings. Thus a student learns that his own teacher is not the only one upon whom he can rely for points of pronunciation. (Parenthetically it can be said that an occasional teacher in need of a better pronunciation can be materially helped by these records.) Then, too, in the case of those few teachers who are reluctant in the use of the foreign language, here is a good substitute, a "pinch-hitter" who is always willing to repeat!

The reader has seen by now that the aim of the Work Shop is not to offer an accelerated program of language teaching. Nor is it to unearth that royal road to learning! The Work Shop will continue to exist because it activates the teaching process. In giving one day a week to an approach through the ear, it puts a premium on accurate hearing. If the operation of the Work Shop needs any further clarification, the writer will be quite pleased to answer any questions sent to him by the readers. When in Birmingham, visit the Work Shop!

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A Note on Present Attitudes Toward Foreign-Language Teaching

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(*Author's summary.*—Recent developments in foreign-language teaching reveal the need for recognizing the special technique and learning process involved in it. Misconceptions and biased attitudes have impaired the function of foreign-language study in liberal-arts education, and have retarded vital accomplishment at the level of higher studies.

IN THESE days of re-examination of curricular matters, the teaching of modern foreign languages is demanding some attention, particularly since the teaching plans brought to prominence by the Army Specialized Training Program, and other educational enterprises sponsored by and for the armed services, have made their impress on language teaching in general. We are now familiar with the report on ASTP teaching prepared by a special committee for the Commission on Trends in Education of the Modern Language Association of America.¹ The publication of this report, together with widespread discussion evoked by the new methods, has given impulse to adaptations of new-type language programs to peace-time language teaching throughout the country. In addition, certain notable investigations are going forward, such as the Rockefeller research project recently begun at the University of Chicago and coöperating institutions which is attempting to formulate ways of promoting a "second language" objective in American education.

These developments inevitably involve a review of language-teaching goals and a rethinking of purposes. It is at this point that the adaptation of the new-type program to the more or less standard, or traditional, setup strikes its first real obstacles. The accommodation of the new approach and method in the languages is obviously going to be expensive to our educational institutions, what with need for carefully coördinated programs, numerous drill sessions, more instructors, some expansion of physical facilities, etc. Should the period of experimental adaptation now in progress reveal that this is the way foreign languages should be taught, the schools and colleges of the country will have the problem of fitting into their curricula and budgets a system of laboratory instruction similar in many ways to that of the sciences. It has been a long time since anyone has questioned the imperative need for separate buildings, expensive equipment, extra laboratory instructors and assistants, in science teaching. It has been possible, however, up to now, to lump the foreign languages with

¹ *A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program.* The Report of a Special Committee. Prepared for the Commission on Trends in Education of The Modern Language Association of America. 100 Washington Square, New York 3, N. Y. Price, 25 cents.

such subjects as history, political science, philosophy, sociology, etc., and tuck them away in some convenient place in the curriculum and in the physical plant of the institution, without recognition of the fact that language study involves a technique and a learning process that require something more than three, four, or five class meetings per week, casually arranged. The fact that this situation has prevailed is traceable in part to our American lack of real regard for the necessity for foreign-language mastery, in spite of the fact that it is customary to acknowledge the value of those languages, even to the extent of making them required subjects of the curriculum.

In recent reactions to the new-type language programs there is discernible a feeling that the languages are stepping out of line, are demanding too much of a place in the sun, are trying to develop themselves out of proportion to their relative importance in liberal education. This point of view, if it has validity, is one of the most vital factors in the evaluation of the whole problem and needs a full-dress debate. In this connection the observations of President Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia University are pertinent: "The steady decline in the study of foreign languages in American secondary schools and colleges has been a matter of deep concern to everyone interested in liberal education. . . . Obviously this strikes at the very roots of a liberal education. In the present world the ability to speak and read with ease at least one foreign language is more than ever necessary if the mind and imagination of American youth is to be set free for expansion beyond the narrow horizon of vocational interests and national prejudice."²

One thing quite clear is that lately, in some American colleges and universities, foreign-language instruction has been occupying a place of inferiority in the minds of administration and faculty alike. The pressure exerted upon curricula by the social studies and professional education departments accounts for much of it. The opinion has gained some acceptance that subject matter and procedure in the foreign-language classes below the level of advanced literature study is not up to the standard of information purveyed and conjectures ventured in other departments. That such is sometimes the case, no one will deny. That it is utter nonsense for the most part, no one should deny. The vital kind of language teaching done by good teachers, even in elementary courses in foreign language, is the very antithesis of narrow, puerile instruction. The days when dull, mechanical grammar drill constituted the language courses are long since gone. Good language teaching, which must indispensably include the presentation of a way of life and a richly significant culture, is quite worthy of holding up its head in the society of modern liberal-arts education.

² From President Butler's *Annual Report for 1944*, quoted in *Hispania*, XXVIII, 1, (Feb., 1945), pp. 100-102.

Indeed, it seems strange to have to justify this section of study which has for centuries been a cornerstone of the humanities. But since everything must come under scrutiny in our days of profound change, the study of foreign language too must submit to examination. The fact that this study has not always kept its self-respect, that its teachers have too often suffered from inferiority complexes, that these teachers have had to accept lower salary scales and suffer the scant respect of their colleagues, is all part of the vicious circle created by a depreciative attitude toward the teaching of languages and the cultures they represent. Fortunately, such an attitude is being refuted in the responsible statements and policies of some of our most distinguished educators. Dr. Butler declares: "It is often said that American weakness in foreign languages is due to poor teaching. The main responsibility, however, is quite different. As a matter of fact, there is no curriculum subject, unless it be mathematics, where teachers have applied themselves more diligently to meet an increasingly difficult curriculum situation. Limited as they are by a narrow time-allotment, which usually allows only two years in college or two to three years in secondary school, in most cases three hours per week, to the study of a foreign language, they have been obliged to concentrate on the one possible objective, the ability to read, and have directed their attention to accelerating the student's progress toward this modest goal. Under these conditions the student tends to look on French, German, Spanish, and Italian as dead languages."³

The prevailing attitude toward foreign languages is revealed also in the feeling of many people that a person of good average intelligence can "pick up" a language by himself, with the aid of a manual of some sort, or a few phonograph records. There are a few exceptional individuals who can do this, but perhaps ninety percent of those who claim to have learned a language that way have no proficiency in it, in the sense that native speakers of that language and teaching specialists in it recognize competency. Many of our own able colleagues declare that they have learned a particular foreign language through their own resources, and then have to make excuses for their inability to follow a conversation in the language, or even to read understandingly in it. Popular notions, even among educated people, of what language proficiency is, are quite naive. For example, it is not at all unusual for a person who can say a few set phrases in French, German, Italian, or Spanish to affirm that he "knows" that language. This is decidedly not what we mean when we speak of proficiency or competency. If we were to put it in absolute terms, of course, such proficiency means that one can comprehend aurally, speak, read, and write the language as correctly and easily as does the educated person to whom that idiom is native. A more practicable standard, perhaps, would be nearer that set as

³ *Ibid.*, p. 101.

a goal for the ASTP trainees: to be able to understand perfectly a native-speaker talking naturally and at normal pace; to be able to speak with passable fluency and correctness; to be able to read rapidly and intelligently; to be able to write the language reasonably well. This at least was the goal achieved by the majority of the ASTP Area-and-Language trainees, although the Army was insisting only that they learn to speak. The level of accomplishment achieved with the Army men is by no means unattainable in our college and university departments of modern languages in the framework of the two underclass years.⁴

It is generally recognized now, at least among language teachers, that two years of college language-training, as it has been given under the traditional course system, usually falls far short of the above-stated objectives, particularly those of comprehension and oral ability. But again most of us would insist, with President Butler, that this does not necessarily mean that modern foreign-language teaching has failed in its duty. Good teaching in this field has been, by and large, as productive as that in any other field. While incompetent work can be found in this area, as in any other, and while too often dull instructional routines devitalize the languages, the good language teacher is brilliantly and consistently teaching not only his language but also culture, broad understanding, scorn for provincialism, and, indeed, a fair portion of what English grammar and syntax the student knows on being graduated from college. But from the point of view of psychological principles of learning, the traditional organization of language teaching is inadequate. The student is dealing, in the first place, not only with a deduced system of complex idiomatic principles and elements, highly academic and artificial, but also with a great body of scarcely-tangible points of view, attitudes, nuances, conceptual overtones, etc. He is exposed on any one class day to a brief hour of this, and, except for a variable period of home study which is usually devoted to the non-vital tasks of grammar study or translating to English, goes along until the next class hour in a milieu in which the foreign language and the living complex it represents do not exist. Most impressions received in the class hour are promptly erased, almost as soon as the student leaves the classroom. He normally receives a maximum of only five hours per week of this exposure. Sometimes he gets only three. The learning principles of duration of impression, frequency, and recency are flagrantly violated. And we wonder why our students do not have a command of the language at the end of two years of language instruction. Isn't it true that a great many

⁴ Everyone would concede, I'm sure, that the Army methods cannot be applied *in toto* to the college curriculum. Incentives and conditions of work are, naturally, not the same. An excellent presentation of the comparative situations is found in Paul P. Roger's article, "Lessons from the ASTP of Language Teaching for Normal Times," *Hispania*, XXVIII, 1, (Feb., 1945), pp. 44-49.

of the foreign-language majors in our colleges and universities are not at home in their chosen language? Some criticism of the new-type programs has argued that principles of learning are violated in them because they crowd too much instruction into a relatively short period of months and thus do not allow the student enough time to assimilate it. The point is, though, that the student is bettering his chances for assimilation in the increased-hours program because he is getting that concentration of impression and the duration of exposure to the idiom that are so indispensable to the mastery of the subject matter and to the maintenance of it near the surface of consciousness where he can readily call it into use, and, by thus putting it into action, effectively make it a part of himself. It might not be too unfair to ask how much assimilation of English grammar takes place over that total period of some eight or more years of steady instruction from a certain level in grammar school through high school and into college? We language teachers know that this language instruction in the student's own tongue has not been assimilated, regardless of his long-time exposure to it. We always have to teach English grammar in our classes. Yet we would not blame the English teachers for a poor job. A more just contention might be that this whole business of learning a language, and what that language speaks for, demands a change of approach and procedure.

One of the most handicappingly partial views, perhaps, of foreign-language teaching is that which classifies the languages as "tool subjects." Of course they are tool subjects. So are history, biology, economics, and many more of our curricular regulars. But no one justifies biology or history study on the basis of their utility as tools. They are aspects of life, and as studies in life they are entitled to their respective places in our teaching programs. I would urge the same consideration for language study. Unamuno says, "A language is a thought, a feeling common to a people, a philosophy, even a metaphysic."⁶ In the same connection he declares that "languages are races of men." Note that he is not saying, in partial terms, that languages are the tools of men. They are the men themselves. The incontrovertible fact that languages also serve as tools for the races of men can almost go without saying. As a matter of fact, for the more specific academic and professional needs in American study it is quite debatable whether much real "tool" use is being made of the foreign-language training gained in our schools and colleges. As things stand now, there is a minimum of carry-over use made of it in the undergraduate career. Certainly very little further employment is made of it by that considerable number who do not go on into graduate or professional study. For those who do go on, earlier training in foreign language usually has failed to

⁶ "Hispanidad," quoted from *Sntesis*, (Buenos Aires), by *Antologia de Ensayos Españoles*, Antonio Alonso, ed., New York, 1936.

provide them with sufficient command of a language to amplify and enrich their capacities in their chosen fields. The more promising students in this group generally manage to do something about this, through independent study and residence abroad. The fact is, however, that something of a paradox exists in the whole "tool" conception of language, namely, that the "tool" idea has contributed to prevent modern-language studies from developing into efficient tool subjects.

With our globe shrinking geographically every day, it may be that the mere "introduction" of a student to a language, and the culture it represents, will be far from sufficient as we try to prepare him for his contribution to the world. The notions that the world was going to settle for one common language, or for some artificial, combination language, have been rather thoroughly discredited. Language is not just a means of communication, a "tool." It includes every thought, emotion, feeling, and impulse inherent in a people. A race or a nationality is denaturalized, its culture broken up and scattered, if deprived of its language. Machiavelli advised "The Prince" to make one of his first acts toward a conquered people the imposition of his language upon them. If the world comes anywhere near to fulfilling the promise of closer unity in the years just ahead, there must perforce be a greater degree of interpenetration between nations. This is exceedingly difficult as long as language is a barrier; simply because languages are the voices of the various racial and national civilizations, and a voice that is not understood is not merely a neutral stimulus but quite often a negative one, creating confusion, antipathy, and even contempt. But if the voice be understood, how much easier it is to create understanding and good will!

In the range of higher studies in language and literature, it is almost certain that these would become more intelligent and significant by virtue of a better foreign-language and literature preparation in the colleges and universities. It is at the upper, professional level that our weakness in language culture is most conspicuous. We have made strenuous efforts to overcome initial handicaps by assiduous study and observation in Europe. Today the presence in America of Maritain, Castro, Spitzer, Cohen, and others of comparable stature, has compensated in some degree for our enforced isolation from Europe during this war. Certain it is that we urgently need all we can develop of the best of European scholarly traditions and training in America. This is not to make servile obeisance to European ways, much less to adopt the stupidly disdainful attitude toward things American that became a regrettable aspect of our intellectual life in the 1920's. It is simply a logical necessity, which we can ignore at our peril. The price, if we take the latter alternative, could well be an extension of perverted positivism and lamentable puerility that would menace American humanistic scholarship. Such a result would naturally bring

discredit on the humanities and deprive them not only of respect but also of capable people, who would seek more challenging fields of work in business, technology, and the vocations. It would seem that improvement for ourselves lies in the direction of increased cultural richness and amplitude. Thus not only would pure scholarship in general be served, but also, indeed, the whole study of the arts. To turn to this latter province, only mediocrity, at best, can result from the well-intentioned fumbblings of the plumbers, mechanics, and pseudo-scientists in the field of art study and criticism. Américo Castro has said, "A literary reality is not a 'thing,' isolable and quiescent, but a living process of values, inseparable from the existence of him who relives them and thus interweaves them into his own existence. A work of art is not an object of scientific knowledge which we can approach with a series of neutralizing inhibitions. It can be done that way, but at the price of leaving out the essential part of the case. . . . A literary judgment isn't demonstrable. I might add here that I do not call pronouncing a work good or bad, Medieval or Renaissance, realistic or idealistic, judgment. Rather it is a matter of making perceptible—perhaps not in the style of our academic prose, bristling with notes—but in pleasing form the very echo of the creative voice, of the *fiat haec lux* of the artist. . . . Judgment on art cannot be communicated as if it were a scientific truth, equal in meaning for all. . . . For such an elementary reason, so-called 'literary research' lacks objectivity when it pretends to concern itself with something beyond the inert skeleton of poetic creation; for this poetic creation, in its full dimension, is not investigable but only relivable, is not knowable but visible in a well-organized perspective. To the triumph of the physical sciences over human ways of understanding human values we owe that inexact term 'literary research,' in which there is *contradictio in adjecto*. Art is not at all verifiable as a physical phenomenon is, but something which must be lived as a totality."⁶

I am only sorry that considerations of restraint and proportion in this brief paper prevent me from quoting more of Professor Castro's enlightened discourse. To him and to others like him, both in Europe and in America, we who are concerned with higher cultural study can turn for that illumination which may lead scholarship and the study of the arts to a brighter day. For such a happy result in America, a greater accomplishment throughout the whole range of study in foreign languages and cultures would make a vital contribution.

⁶ From a mimeographed excerpt, *Literature and Life*, (Princeton, N. J., 1945), taken from a major historical work soon to appear.

Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers: Fact vs. Fiction

A Reply to "Concentration vs. Dispersion"

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(Author's summary.—A correction of statements and points of view attributed to the writer and an appraisal of recommendations for the preparation of foreign language teachers which were presented earlier in the *Journal* by Professor M. S. Pargment.)

AN ARTICLE which appeared in the *Journal* several months ago purported to present a criticism of a publication by the present writer.¹ The article, although written by a scholar in the field of language, misquoted or misrepresented every specific statement which he attributed to us and with which he disagreed; moreover it presented a series of erroneous assumptions relative to our position which were directly contradicted by available evidence, and it contained numerous recommendations which revealed a woeful ignorance of conditions in the secondary schools of this country.

Our critic charged that, "He (the present writer) recognizes that 'it may be inadvisable at this time to make recommendations relative to combinations,' but he makes these recommendations just the same . . ." (pp. 457-458).² But our statement was misquoted (it should have read "it may seem inadvisable"), taken out of context, and misinterpreted. As a matter of fact our statement was used to introduce the justification for our recommendations, our conclusion being:

"In view of all of these facts, the present study may be even more worthwhile than it would ordinarily have been."³

Thus our critic attributed to us the very position which we explicitly rejected.

Our critic stated that we defined a minor of preparation for teaching any one foreign language in the high schools as "a minimum of 16 hours" (p. 459), a figure which he soon reduced to simply "16 hours." (p. 460) But he confused our definition of a minor (which we defined as less than 28 hours) with our statement of the minimum legal qualifications for teaching any subject, including foreign languages, in the high schools of Illinois.⁴ Nowhere in the Bulletin which he attacked did we define a minor either as 16 hours or as a minimum of 16 hours. On the contrary, at two different points we explicitly deplored amounts of preparation in any subject which barely meet minimum standards.⁵

The article under consideration alleged that according to our recommendations "A major in French, or in Spanish, is to form part of only one

¹ Pargment, M. S., "Concentration vs. Dispersion in the Training of Teachers of Foreign Languages," *The Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (October, 1944): 457-462.

² All page numbers in parentheses in this document refer to the article by Pargment.

³ *The Combination of Subjects of Specialization for High School Teachers of Foreign Languages*, University of Illinois Bulletin Vol. 40, No. 19, December 29, 1942; pp. 5-6. This source is referred to hereafter by the term "The 1942 Bulletin."

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 28.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 29-30 and 31-32.

combination . . . " (p. 459) and that "*The number of majors in Latin is to be five times as large as that in any modern foreign language.*" (p. 460) A careful perusal of our Bulletin, however, will reveal that in the total list of combinations which we definitely recommended, Latin may be the major in five combinations, French in three, Spanish in two, and German in one. In addition, we listed three combinations, all having French as the major, which we had proposed in an earlier study and about which we stated that after the necessary data were procured, consideration be given to whether they should be retained or eliminated.⁶ Their retention in our list would mean a total of six combinations with a major in French, or one more than for Latin, and their elimination would still leave three such combinations rather than one.

Our critic stated that we proposed that ". . . the number of majors in language be reduced." (p. 457) This statement represents an erroneous conclusion based upon the discussion just referred to, of the possibility that three combinations might be eliminated. Moreover, in the same discussion we recommended the addition of two new combinations, each with a foreign language major.⁷ Consequently, our total list of combinations would be reduced by only one even if the three questionable assignments were eliminated, and it would actually be increased by two if they were retained.

Our critic concluded that we would ". . . recommend a longer period of training for teachers of Latin than for teachers of modern foreign languages!" (p. 460) This conclusion, however, represents a grave misinterpretation of the matter of majors and minors as we presented it. Our position was that whether in a given school the classes in any foreign language are taught by a teacher with major or minor preparation in it should depend, not upon whether it happened to be Latin or a modern foreign language, but rather upon the size of the teaching load in that language whatever it might be. Thus we stated: "We may assume that the teacher who teaches three or four classes in *any* one foreign language has a major portion of his instructional load in that subject, and, therefore, he should have had major training in it."⁸ Moreover, we pointed out that we would establish several combinations in which the foreign languages, *including Latin*, appeared as minors,⁹ these combinations to be used in schools having only one or two classes in the language.¹⁰ We would provide only a minor of preparation in the subject or subjects which constitute a minor portion of any high school teacher's load in order that he might have a major of preparation in that field in which the majority of his instructional assignment falls.

Our critic alleged that we would have more teachers of foreign languages prepared "to teach at least three subjects, but preferably four." (p. 459) He failed to note, however, that *none of the combinations which we proposed contain as many as four subjects*. His allegation constitutes another amazing misinterpretation of our position, which was that any combination which included both French and Spanish should be avoided *because, if established*, it ought to contain a total of four subjects. We gave detailed evidence to justify this conclusion.¹¹ In arguing against combinations made up of four subjects we stated, "Obviously, the larger the number of subjects in which a teacher is prepared, the less thorough is his preparation in any one of

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 9 and 35-36.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 35-36.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 13. Italics not in original.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 10 and 13-15.

them."¹² Our critic cited this sentence, but his reference to it alleged that we were recognizing the fact stated in the quotation, yet were disregarding thoroughness of preparation altogether because we regarded qualification in three "but preferably four" subjects as paramount. (p. 459) Here again he took our statement out of its original context and misinterpreted it.

In a bulletin published in 1939 we expressed at length our views on many aspects of the problem of preparing high school teachers and of assigning them to subjects in the program of studies.¹³ Consequently we did not repeat these statements in the 1942 report; instead we merely made frequent footnote references to the first Bulletin.

Despite these references, however, our critic made certain assumptions relative to our position without consulting the earlier study. Thus he stated, "... his standards . . . are so low that this (lack of thorough preparation on the part of foreign language teachers) causes him no concern." (p. 459) Again he charged us with "... a complete indifference to teacher qualifications as long as the minimum legal requirements are met." (p. 460) In the same Bulletin which he criticized, however, we stated that, "improved preparation, especially broader training of teachers in their fields of specialization" was one of the advantages offered by the system of simplified combinations which we had proposed.¹⁴ Moreover, we then referred to the pages in our 1939 publication in which we argued for this list of combinations on the grounds, first, that it would permit every teacher to have the majority of his teaching load in the field of his major preparation and also to have minor preparation in each minor subject assigned to him, and second, that the teacher's preparation could greatly exceed the minimum legal standards.¹⁵ We referred to this same discussion at still a second point in our 1942 Bulletin,¹⁶ but our critic drew his conclusion relative to our position without obtaining this bit of pertinent evidence and completely misrepresented us.¹⁷

Our critic implied that we would "assign to them (candidates for a teacher's certificate) any combination of subjects without regard to the affinity of the latter and, above all, to the tastes, inclinations and special abilities of the candidates." (p. 459) Yet in the Bulletin which he attacked we referred to a section of our 1939 publication which contains the following statement, "... the major and minor preparations are very likely to reinforce each other in the case of a combination included in the simplified system because in so many instances they represent very closely related fields."¹⁸ Earlier in the same Bulletin we explained that one of the criteria used in establishing our combinations was that of "Relationships between major and minor fields."¹⁹

It should go without saying that we would permit each prospective teacher to choose whatever major he preferred, including any one of the

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 10.

¹³ *Simplifying the Combinations of Subjects Assigned to High School Teachers*, University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXXVI, No. 87, June 27, 1939, 66 pp. University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. This publication is referred to hereafter as "The 1939 Bulletin."

¹⁴ The 1942 Bulletin, p. 5.

¹⁵ The 1939 Bulletin, pp. 53-54.

¹⁶ The 1942 Bulletin, pp. 5 and 38.

¹⁷ Our 1939 Bulletin also made clear at other points our position relative to the subject-matter preparation of teachers. See, for example, pages 14-15 and 32-33.

¹⁸ The 1939 Bulletin, p. 54; the reference to this source was made on pages 5 and 38 of our 1942 Bulletin.

¹⁹ The 1939 Bulletin, p. 35.

languages commonly taught in the high schools. We would then restrict his choice of minors somewhat since we would have him select some one combination in which his major occurred and have him prepare in that entire combination. In the Bulletin which our critic attacked, however, we explained at length that this does not mean that we would prevent the teacher either from preparing to teach, or from actually teaching some other subject not included in this combination.²⁰ After illustrating how this could be done we inserted a footnote which stated, "See pp. 56-58 of the Bulletin referred to earlier (our 1939 Bulletin) for a statement of the limited extent to which the simplified system of combinations restricts the subjects which can be assigned to any one teacher." The publication referred to explains that one of the criteria which we used in deciding which majors and minors to combine was "Teachers' preferences as to combinations."²¹ But our critic, without consulting evidence explicitly presented or indicated to him, concluded that we would ignore teachers' "tastes, inclinations and special abilities" in assigning subject combinations.

The plan of giving the prospective teacher *complete* freedom in choosing what minor or minors he will combine with his major should be considered in light of the following facts. Many institutions have permitted complete freedom of choice in the past. Moreover, high school principals have also not been limited to any restricted list of combinations in assigning subjects to teachers in actual practice. The results of this situation have been reported in a great many studies. One of our own investigations was based upon a group of 525 public accredited four-year high schools in Illinois having no more than 20 teachers on the staff. The 131 teachers of French in these schools were teaching a total of 32 different combinations of subjects; thus there was an average of 4.1 teachers per combination. The 503 teachers of Latin were teaching a total of 86 different combinations, making an average of 5.8 teachers per combination. Thirty-eight per cent of the French teachers and 28.4 per cent of the Latin teachers were teaching three or more subjects. Similar conditions were found in the other high school subjects.²²

A large number of other studies have shown similar results. We summarized these in our 1939 Bulletin by saying:

"Conditions with respect to teaching combinations can be described only as chaotic. In any one state there is found a very large number of combinations, i.e., hundreds of them, most of which occur only infrequently, a few of which have become standardized, large proportions of which contain three or more subjects, and many of which bring together subjects with little or no regard to the relationships which they bear to one another."²³

We also summarized the consequences of these chaotic conditions as follows:

- "1. . . many teaching positions are so highly individualized from the point of view of the combinations represented that few, if any, well-qualified teachers can ever be made available for them. . . .
- "2. . . success in securing employment boils down, for many prospective teachers, to the mere matter of being prepared in the right combination. . . . They find that a premium is placed on securing a smattering of training in many different subjects

²⁰ The 1942 Bulletin, pp. 38-39.

²¹ The 1939 Bulletin, pp. 34-35.

²² "Teaching Combinations," Part II, Section A of the Final Report of the Committee on Subject-Matter Preparation of Secondary School Teachers, *The North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. XII (April, 1938): 456-466.

²³ The 1939 Bulletin, p. 13.

instead of thorough-going preparation in a few. Teachers who are generally superior may be unable to obtain employment because they have not had the necessary preparation in one or more of the minor subjects included in the combinations represented by positions that are vacant.

- "3. . . the standards of preparation met by many teachers in the subjects which they are teaching are relatively low. A considerable proportion of high-school teachers in many states are now teaching one or more classes in fields in which they have neither major nor minor preparation, and in addition a considerable proportion are now teaching one or more classes in which they had few or no college courses. . . ." ²⁴

Such are the consequences of allowing *complete* freedom in combining majors and minors. These facts led us to construct the simplified system of combinations which places certain restrictions upon the choice of minors that may be combined with any given major. The system was specifically designed to remedy the situation just noted, to help solve the problem of preparing and assigning high school teachers. Its advantages were fully demonstrated in our 1939 Bulletin.

We have shown that although our critic repeatedly assumed that we held to a certain position, he did so without considering or obtaining pertinent evidence which we had presented. Yet, in attributing still another position to us, he charged that our "views on education do not go beyond immediate practicability," and that we are "hardly ever" preoccupied with "anything that transcends the immediate such as *the training of the mind in logical and critical thinking*, broad views on life and on man, the general cultural level of citizens . . ." (p. 458, italics ours). We wonder whether our critic is aware that "critical thinking" is generally thought of as including, among other procedures, that of suspending judgment until all of the pertinent evidence has been obtained, of not drawing final conclusions until all relevant facts have been considered. We should like personally to have this procedure function in the everyday lives of all citizens, including especially scholars in the field of language.

Yet here again our critic overlooked pertinent evidence. In the publication which he attacked we stated that our study should make it easier to "preserve the foreign language offering as an important section of the humanities area."²⁵ In our 1939 Bulletin we discussed the topic "General Education *an indispensable element* in the teacher's subject-matter preparation,"²⁶ and we argued for five years of college preparation for high school teachers, partly on the ground that it would make possible a more adequate general or cultural education.²⁷

Our critic made certain disparaging statements about our Bulletin, saying: ". . . Professor Potthoff's approach to the problem (of preparing teachers of the foreign languages) is shallow and not free from bias; . . . and . . . his recommendations are reckless and dangerous." (p. 457) Elsewhere he asserted that our recommendations would have "harmful consequences" and that our conclusions "may and probably will have a detrimental effect . . ." (p. 458) Obviously these opinions must rest funda-

²⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 14-15.

²⁵ The 1942 Bulletin, p. 6.

²⁶ Page 32; italics not in original

²⁷ The 1939 Bulletin, pp. 32-33. It may be noted incidentally that we have expressed ourselves at some length on the subject of general education in the two following publications:

- a. "Fundamental Purposes of General Education," *The Journal of Higher Education*, XIII (February, 1942): 73-76.
- b. "Functionalism in General Education," *The Journal of Higher Education*, XIV (March, 1943): 148-152.

mentally upon his interpretation of our specific statements and upon his assumptions concerning our general position, both of which we have already shown to have been completely erroneous. Consequently he could not draw any sound conclusions of a still broader character; his general opinions about our work have no foundation whatsoever.

Early in his article our critic stated

"Outside of the small high schools of his state, Professor Potthoff's figures have been drawn from only 50 schools—out of a total of 173—few of which are located in the city of Chicago. He recognizes that, in his study, 'large schools are underrepresented'; he knows that the conditions he is describing do not prevail in the high schools of the eastern states, nor in preparatory schools everywhere; . . ." (p. 457).

Thus he evidently believed that if the "large schools" had been fairly represented in our study, we would have found different conditions and, therefore, would have altered our recommendations.

It is important to point out that a portion of our critic's quotation is inaccurate, his version of our phrase "schools having fifty or more teachers were somewhat under-represented,"²⁸ being 'large schools are under-represented.'" (p. 457) Consequently even though he may not have thought of the large schools as consisting of those having more than 50 teachers on the staff, the validity of his objection to the under-representation must be examined in terms of schools of that size. The same page of our Bulletin from which he "quoted" the phrase just cited showed, by means of a table, that only 8.6 per cent of all public and private accredited high schools in Illinois had more than 50 teachers on the staff.²⁹ These schools, therefore, were very small in number as compared with those of lesser size and could not change materially the total picture for all schools *even though they were over-represented* in the sampling process. And on the contrary, if we were to think only of schools of more than 50 teachers as large, and confined ourselves to them, we would ignore 91.4 per cent of the total group. Thus the over-representation of the "large schools" to which our critic objected was insignificant as compared with the vast number of schools of lesser size. He apparently overlooked these data, however, as well as our statement that, for our purposes, the slight under-representation was insignificant because serious problems in making assignments do not arise in schools having more than 50 teachers.³⁰

Our critic stated:

"It is necessary to analyze Mr. Potthoff's recommendations in order to point out the harmful consequences that would result if they were to be followed. In substance, these recommendations are:

1. *Teacher training institutions, including the great universities, should adjust their programs so as to meet the needs of the small high schools."* (pp. 458-459)

According to the table just referred to, 23.4 per cent of all accredited high schools in Illinois had from two to five teachers on the staff, 60.0 per cent had no more than ten teachers, and 80.4 per cent had less than 21.³¹ Thus, even if we were to set the upper limit of the small schools at only five teachers, we would still include almost one-fourth of the total group. We regarded the small schools as those having staffs of no more than ten

²⁸ The 1942 Bulletin, p. 11.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-12.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

teachers;³² thus we included 60.0 per cent of all schools in the State. It would obviously be impossible for a teacher training institution, particularly the State University, to justify ignoring such a high proportion of all high schools in the State. The harmful consequences would come, not from making provision for the needs of these schools as our critic asserted, but rather from failing to recognize their needs. Thus the very opposite of his contention would be true.

Our critic stated that one of his purposes was to show that the problem with which our Bulletin was concerned, namely, that of preparing high school teachers of the foreign languages, "is not general" (p. 457), but he presented no facts of any kind to prove his assertion. An analysis of data provided by the United States Office of Education shows that in only four states out of a group of 31 eastern, New England, and North Central Association states did a majority of the public high schools, accredited and unaccredited, have 300 or more pupils. In fifteen of these states less than 20 per cent of all of the schools were of this size and in 24 of them the percentage was less than 40. The proportion of all such schools in Illinois was 21.1 per cent.³³ Since all high schools having less than 300 pupils may be regarded as relatively small it is clear that, despite our critic's assertion to the contrary, the problem just mentioned *is* general and that teacher training institutions, including the great universities, must adjust their programs to the needs of schools in this classification if they are to reach any very large proportion of the total group.

There is also a second reason why the higher institutions should consider the needs of the small high schools. Inexperienced teachers, even those graduating from the great universities, are very likely to have to find their first teaching positions in relatively small schools. In the Bulletin which our critic attacked we presented data indicating that on the basis of our sample of fifty schools the entire group of 173 schools in Illinois having more than 20 teachers on the staff employed an average of only nine or ten inexperienced teachers of foreign languages per year.³⁴

Our critic asserted that the small high schools "offer many non-essential subjects" and suggested that they could solve the problem of assigning teachers to the subjects in the offering by "keeping their programs within their means." (p. 458) But our study of 400 public accredited four-year high schools in Illinois having no more than ten teachers on the staff showed that only 11 of these schools provided any work in art, only 93 offered chemistry, only 89 had courses in industrial arts, and only 265 offered home economics. Eighty-four of these schools did not offer physics, 201 offered no work in agriculture, 144 provided none in music, and 15 had no courses in the social studies outside of history.³⁵ The limitations of their foreign language offerings we present in the following paragraph.

Our critic suggested that the small high schools limit their offering to a single foreign language, and that this be the one "which the given teacher is competent to teach." (p. 458) Data presented in our 1939 Bulletin, however, showed that of the 400 schools having no more than ten teachers on the staff only 48 (or 12 per cent) offered as many as two foreign languages (one of which was always Latin). Moreover, 326 of these schools (or 81.5

³² *Ibid.*, p. 37.

³³ *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1937-38*, Biennial Survey of Education, Bulletin, 1940, No. 2, Chap. V, U. S. Office of Education, p. 22.

³⁴ The 1942 Bulletin, pp. 19 and 22.

³⁵ The 1939 Bulletin, pp. 20 and 23-24.

per cent) taught no foreign language other than Latin, only eight of them offering German, fifty offering French, and seven offering Spanish at the time the data were collected for this study.³⁶ Thus our critic's suggestion to limit the offering to one foreign language is already very largely in effect. Furthermore, since this one language is Latin in most cases, it is apparent that his proposal might retard the realization of his hope that in the future large numbers of American citizens will "know the languages of the other nations as well as they know ours." (p. 462)

Our critic recommended that the teacher of a foreign language be expected to teach only one additional subject. (p. 458) Of the 400 small schools just referred to, however, 108 (or 27 per cent) had only one class in all foreign languages combined, and 326 (or 81.5 per cent) had no more than two classes. Similar situations existed in most of the other subject fields.³⁷ Since five classes must be regarded as a minimum full teaching load for one teacher (six are frequently required) it is obvious that many teachers in these schools, including those of the foreign languages, must teach as many as three different subjects if they are to be given full instructional assignments.

In closing his article our critic stated,

"They (educators) must insure against the recurrence of what happened after the First World War, when a sudden demand for teachers of French was met by large masses of teachers who knew little French, and of what is happening again now, when a sudden and overwhelming demand for teachers of Spanish has caused large numbers of teachers to teach this language without knowing it." (p. 462)

He was apparently not aware that the Bulletin which he attacked explained that our simplified system of combinations was designed to meet this very type of situation. Thus we stated:

"... a great many teachers of Latin in small schools (those having no more than ten teachers) are not (now) qualified in any other foreign language.

"In general, as many as possible of the combinations (in our simplified system) which contain Latin (either as a major or as a minor) were made to include a modern foreign language also. ... This was done (partly) in order to increase the number of teachers who would be so qualified that the smaller schools could modify or enrich their foreign language offering."³⁸

In concluding this article we wish to say that, in our opinion, numerous remedies must be applied in solving the problem of preparing and assigning high school teachers; the simplification of subject combinations will not, by itself, provide a complete solution. This step, however, cannot be altogether disregarded as our critic implied. On the contrary, it has a major and indispensable role to play; it will determine, more than any other remedy, our success in solving the problem under consideration.

³⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 20 and 22.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 21.

³⁸ The 1942 Bulletin, pp. 37-38.

Reply to Professor Potthoff's Article on Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers: Fact vs. Fiction

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I REGRET being obliged to take so much valuable space, but the nature of Professor Potthoff's article is such that, unless every detail in it is analyzed and evaluated, it will leave unimpaired the value of its author's Recommendations, and thus bring about the following undesirable results: 1) It will strengthen the general belief that a teacher with minor preparation in language is qualified to teach it; 2) It will further the idea that it is normal for a high school teacher to have preparation in three subjects; 3) It will weaken the importance of having a major in foreign language, since, for all practical purposes, a minor in it will do as well.*

I shall take up Professor Potthoff's arguments and accusations in the order in which they have been presented, and shall try to show that no significant detail in his Study has been misrepresented, that no irrational assumptions have been made, that all his statistics prove nothing, and above all that his Study, far from serving any useful purpose, is bound to do harm.

For the inexact quotation, I am sorry. That this was not deliberate can be seen from the fact that it had little or no bearing on the issues under discussion. Moreover, the author's position in the matter was not as positive as his quotation makes it appear. In fact, he cited almost as many reasons against the timeliness of his Study as in favor of it.

Professor Potthoff's violent protests against my statement that he "considered a minimum of 16 hours in language as a minor" represent two sad examples of deceptive argumentation. There are several others. 1. I did not say that he *defined* a minor as a minimum of 16 hours. I said that he *considered* that number of hours as a minor, which is the exact truth, as anybody can see. In the Bulletin which I reviewed it is said: "For the purposes of this Study, the term 'qualified to teach' means a minimum of 16 hours in college work in the language," and in the Bulletin to which he

* In support of the soundness of these fears, I wish to quote a few pertinent lines from some of the letters I received as a result of my article: 1) From the Chairman of the Department of Romance Languages in a great State University: "... your article is appreciated in X . . . , where teachers go out to teach modern languages with the blessings of the School of Education and, incidentally, with fifteen hours instruction in the language." 2) From the Chairman of the Department of Latin in a distinguished institution: "Our requirement of a major and two minors simply guarantees that we send into the public schools a continuous stream of inadequately prepared teachers." 3) From the vice-president of a college which is famous for the excellent training it gives to teachers of modern languages: "I want to thank you for . . . your article . . . combatting the very sinister influence which Professor Potthoff's article may have on students who want to major in Modern Languages. Already there is a very strong tendency for students not to major in a single Modern Language." He, naturally, ascribes this tendency to the numerous subjects prospective teachers are expected to take, and concludes by saying that if this tendency is encouraged, preparation in modern language "will sink very low."

referred it is stated: "In the case of minors . . . the minimum amount of college preparation was assumed to be 16 hours." 2. In the texts to which he refers, he did not deplore the inadequacy of this figure as a minor in language; he deplored the lack of "common sense" on the part of those who prepare both a major and a minor in language, for then some of the students have only small amounts of preparation in *other* subjects. (Incidentally, he missed an excellent opportunity to deplore what he says he was deploring when he tabulated the preparation of the students under his scrutiny, for nearly $\frac{1}{3}$ of them had only 16 hours in one language.)

The distinction between "16 hours" and "a minimum of 16 hours" is, in this case, purely academic. In practice many teacher training institutions have been satisfied with this minimum, and some with even less.

My statement that he proposes a reduction in the number of majors is true, since he recommends that two (one in French and one in Spanish) be added and that three (all in French) be eliminated. He did not say, as he now claims, that "consideration be given to whether these should be retained or eliminated." Rather, after citing arguments for their elimination, he said: "It is recommended that consideration be given to making these eliminations." But what will even more surely cause such a reduction is the fact that teacher training institutions who take his Study seriously will not discover in it the slightest practical advantage in training majors in language and thus for incurring the extra, and big, expense.

My statement that reads: "A major in French, or in Spanish, is to form part of only one combination," etc. is due to my misinterpretation of the author's final recommendations. I am the more sorry, since, just as my other inaccurate quotation, it was not needed for my argument that Latin is receiving preferential treatment.

That he favors better training for teachers of Latin than for teachers of the modern foreign languages is implied in his desire to see more teachers with a major in Latin than in any of the modern languages.*

The principle that it is the size of the load in a given language that should determine whether it be taught by a teacher with major or minor preparation in it must not be applied without discrimination. Consideration must also be given to the nature of the subjects involved. If applied to the particular case under discussion, it is Latin that will be taught most frequently by a teacher with major preparation in it, since in most secondary schools Latin occupies a stronger position than any single modern language. If Professor Potthoff were guided by pedagogical considerations instead of practical convenience, his Study would have started from the principle that, if a foreign language *must be* taught by a teacher with minor preparation in it, this language should be Latin rather than a modern language, for the reasons I gave in my article. Besides, teachers who are opposed to giving a predominant position to Latin do not wish to further this practice by having teachers better trained in Latin than in the modern foreign languages.

My statement that Professor Potthoff's standards are very low was based on the following considerations: He takes it for granted that a teacher with a minor in a foreign language is qualified to teach it, and he considers the requirement of one major and two minors as normal. Also Professor Potthoff seems to think that 28 hours in language is a high figure. But 28 hours are not enough, as has been amply proved by a series of tests carried

* If his final recommendations are adopted, there will be 3 combinations that include majors in French, 2 in Spanish, 1 in German, as against 5 in Latin.

out by the New York State Department of Education.¹ Moreover, many schools in this country began more than fifteen years ago to require for a major from 36 to more than 48 hours (in addition to two, three, or four years of high school preparation in the language).²

An interesting illustration of the unconcern with which purely pedagogical values have been considered is afforded by the criterion that was applied by Professor Potthoff in determining the requirements for a major in foreign language. It was simply "assumed that a prospective teacher majoring in any foreign language should have college preparation in it approximately equivalent to that recommended for teachers of English." Just one insignificant detail was overlooked, namely that the 28 or 30 hours in English is in addition to the 20 years the student has been using and studying the language!

Professor Potthoff's statement that he was concerned with improved preparation, and his utterances regarding his interest in teachers' preferences as to subjects, and the affinity of subjects were ignored for the good reason that they were but pious declarations. In fact, if his recommendations are applied, the quality of teachers will be impaired, the teacher's choice of subjects will be limited to one out of three, and the affinity of subjects will be reduced to a bare minimum.

There was no need to "explain at length" that candidates would not be prevented from preparing some other subject not included in the combinations. We know that. Only, how many candidates will avail themselves of this privilege after they are told what the *right* combination is? Are there many teacher training institutions, anxious to place their product, that will encourage such deviations?

That Professor Potthoff would have programs of Study for prospective teachers arranged so that "more teachers will be qualified to teach at least three subjects, but preferably four" I derived from the following observations: 1. His main argument against having both a major and a minor in language is that this might make it difficult for the students to be prepared in a sufficient number of other subjects. Since *one* other subject can be included in the program without any difficulty, this can only mean *two* additional subjects; 2. He insistently suggests that inexperienced teachers must look for their first position in a small school. Now, it is well known that in the small schools teachers prepared in three or four subjects are infinitely more appreciated than those who are prepared only in two; 3. All his combinations having a foreign language as a major include three subjects, and with regard to the fourth subject, he states that "The standardization of subject combinations need not restrict the list of subjects which any individual teaches or prepares to teach." His claim that he "argued against combinations made up of four subjects" amounts, in fact, to this: While citing arguments against a combination that would include both French and Spanish—his *bête noire*—he also mentioned the fact that a teacher prepared in both French and Spanish would have to be qualified "in at least one, and very often two additional subjects."

I fail to understand Professor Potthoff's outburst against diversified combinations. What is wrong with them, as long as teachers are qualified

¹ W. R. Price. *Shorn Lambs. The Modern Language Journal*, 1933-34.

² C. M. Purin. *The Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages*, p. 35 (The Macmillan Co., 1929).

to teach their subjects? His statistics prove beyond a shadow of a doubt that the variety of combinations is very great, but wherein the evil is, I cannot discover. Nor can I find grounds for the merits he claims for standardized combinations. He declares: 1. That they will prevent teachers from trying to be prepared in more than the required number of subjects. How will they, as long as all other requirements remain the same? 2. That they will prevent superintendents from employing inadequately prepared teachers. By what magic virtue? and 3. that they will make it easier for prospective teachers to secure jobs. This could only be expected if most high school principals were to accept the idea of fixed combinations, which, however, is most unlikely. It is hard to imagine a reason for their doing so, at the expense of their freedom of action, since fixed combinations means fixed offerings and fixed assignments. Besides, in many schools, the introduction of the system will upset the *status quo* of many teachers in service.

I did say that the conditions he is describing, and on which he based his conclusions, are not general, but I did not say that I shall show this to be true. I am not in the habit of having recourse to demonstrations in order to prove what is common knowledge. The figures cited by Professor Potthoff do no more than inform us officially of the well-known fact that there are small schools in all the States; they do not tell us anything about the subjects taught in these schools. Offerings do not vary with the size of the schools only; they vary, perhaps even more, with their material means, their ideals and aspirations, and the quality of the offerings are not everywhere the same, either.

Professor Potthoff claims that his Study should make it easier to "preserve the foreign language offering as an important section of the humanities area." Perhaps so. My position, however, is that, unless foreign languages are taught by competent teachers, the interests of the humanities will not be served, nor will those of the students or of society. This is particularly true in the case of beginners. If no competent teacher of language can be had, all the above interests will be served much better by a greater concentration on English.

I am not as sure as Professor Potthoff is that his failure to include in his Study more large schools was "relatively unimportant." I believe, on the contrary, that if he had included in it several hundred large schools and had, at the same time, also considered the matter of competence, he would have found that the need for highly trained teachers prepared to teach one or two subjects is greater than that of partially trained ones "qualified" to teach three or four subjects. Especially so if he had also included in his Study several hundred small schools with high standards. Happily, there are many such schools in the U.S.A.

I did not mean to say that teacher training institutions should ignore the small schools. I know that it is in these schools that the great mass of American children are being educated. A somewhat fuller quotation would show that I had in mind the particular need conceived by Professor Potthoff, namely: teachers that are especially appreciated in some of the small and unambitious schools, because they are "qualified" to teach at least three subjects, and whose preparation in a foreign language may be limited to 16 hours. But teacher training institutions are not in private business. It is wrong of them to be guided by any but pedagogical considerations. Medical Schools do not graduate inadequately trained physicians just be-

cause some backward communities find it convenient to use their services! Is the teacher's role in society of lesser consequence?

Coming back to the particular subject which is under discussion, I believe that no self-respecting institution should put its stamp of approval on a teacher of language who has only had 16 hours in it. The very barest minimum should be 25, and this only for the time being, as a transitional step towards much higher standards.

It is perhaps not too presumptuous to say that I am at least as well qualified to offer suggestions concerning non-essential subjects as my opponent is to handle problems dealing with modern language instruction. In order to be persuaded that in the small schools few or no non-essential subjects are taught, it would be necessary for me to forget what I know to exist in many schools and I should have to be sure that the relatively large number of schools in Illinois that offer industrial arts or home economics, do not do this at the expense of more and better English, a more extensive knowledge and a deeper understanding of history, etc. If this is the price they have to pay, then these subjects are non-essential.

I cannot very well afford to ignore my opponent's fling at my competence to discuss matters pertaining to secondary schools, lest his assertion detract from the weight of my statements and suggestions. I will say, therefore, that I am neither an amateur in this field, nor an ivory tower dweller, and that for more than a quarter of a century I have taken an active interest in the secondary schools of this country. Besides, it is not necessary perhaps to be a specialist in education, or even to be endowed with great perspicacity in order to know that some of the conditions that prevail in a large number of our secondary schools are so bad as to be intolerable to any person who is convinced that education is the very source not only of all human happiness, but also of all human miseries when it is mismanaged.

Here are some of the things I know, and which all American citizens should know, regarding the very source of all education—the teachers: (They are not irrelevant, since they will show with what trifles, in comparison, some of our ministers of education are busying themselves.) 1. A very high percentage of our high school teachers do not know well enough the subjects they are teaching, especially in the field of modern foreign languages; 2. A very large number of teachers do not know *how* to impart the subject they are teaching, and they do not stay in the profession long enough to learn; 3. The teaching load of most teachers, which is ordinarily further increased by accessory duties, is so heavy that their best efforts to do a good job of teaching, or to improve themselves professionally, are frustrated. Many teachers frankly confess that all they can do is to keep order and . . . records. 4. In schools located in small communities, many teachers are, in addition, morally depressed, and are eternally looking for a means to get out while they are still young enough to find another job or . . . a husband. I also know the causes of this depression, which are great evils in themselves: they are deprived of suitable social contacts, removed from cultural or artistic benefits, and their personal freedom is being interfered with; 5. Coming to the subject in which I am most directly interested, the conditions under which foreign languages are taught in the secondary schools of this country are, generally speaking, worse than any that prevail in *all* the other civilized countries. This is enough knowledge, I suppose, not only for me to have an opinion and to express it with a passionate conviction, but also to

be impatient with those whose business it should be to eradicate these fundamental evils, and who, nevertheless, act as if they were ignorant of them. To return the compliment to my opponent, I am tempted to suggest that, since he considers the "problem" of combinations timely and important enough to be worth the attention of school authorities, it can only be that he is "woefully ignorant of conditions in the secondary schools of this country." It is quite possible that, like so many other experts, he does not see anything beyond the walls of the garden in which he is cultivating his combinations lovingly and scientifically

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR THE 'AIR AGE'!"

"AMERICANS, AWAKE TO LANGUAGE NEEDS!"

"FOREIGN LANGUAGES, AMERICA'S NEED FOR THE FUTURE!"

Iowa Place Names of Foreign Origin

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(*Author's summary.*—Some foreign place names in Iowa, classified by language, together with the history of the origin of some of them. Phonetic transcriptions are according to usage in Kenyon, J. S. and Knott, T. A. *A pronouncing dictionary of American English*, Merriam, 1944).

FOREIGN place names are one of the more interesting forms of realia for the use of language classes, having the advantage of being closely related to everyday life. Their incidence is not so infrequent as might be expected, nor are they confined to such regions as have obviously received large cultural contributions from foreign elements.¹ An investigation of the midwestern states, particularly of Iowa, yields unexpected returns.

The decades of Iowa's most rapid settlement, 1840–1860, saw a feverish eagerness to build towns, some of which activity later collapsed, leaving only a name. Nomenclature for so many new places became a problem, and brought about the use of more foreign words than would otherwise have been likely. This, together with the frequent changes which took place, gives town names in this area a varied and interesting semantic background.

The following list of past and present Iowa towns, post offices, and counties includes their origin where known. If no explanation is made, an historical connection should not be assumed, the intent being only to show ultimate derivations. Many of Iowa's classical names, for example, were borrowed from New York.

This study is limited to post offices, towns (including projected towns) and counties, since natural features are more likely to receive their names from the native (in this case Indian) inhabitants. Also, Iowa lacks prominent physical features, such as mountains, deserts, large lakes, etc.

These names derive from persons, places, mythological and literary characters, battles, natural features, book titles and other sources. The most frequent ones are of Biblical, French, English, Latin, Spanish, German, Greek, Irish, Scandinavian, Italian, Dutch, Swiss, Russian and Welsh origin.

French

The choice of French names was influenced by their prestige value, a motive not found to much extent in the other languages used. While classical names occurred with greater frequency than French, and ap-

¹ Cf. Kuehne, Oswald R., "Place names in the United States as an incentive to foreign language study," *Modern Language Journal*, XXV, 1940, pp. 91–107; also "Footprints of Spain in the United States—place names," in Kaulfers, Walter V., *Modern languages for modern schools*, McGraw-Hill, 1942, pp. 169–171.

parently were sometimes intended to show culture, still, it was French which conveyed an impression of elegance. This superiority is demonstrated by a number of changes from English to French forms.

Under the influence of French *belle* are Bellair (Appanoose co.); Belle Air (Johnson co.), also spelled Belleair and Bell Air; Belle Plaine (Benton co.), formerly Gwinville or Gwinsville; Belle Point (Boone co.); Bellefontaine (Mahaska co.); Belle Vista (Plymouth co.), probably originally Spanish *bella*; and Belleville (Webster co.). Bellevue (Jackson co.), also spelled Bellevue, formerly Bell View, commemorated an early settler John Bell; and Belleville (Jefferson co.) was likewise after a man named Bell. However, the expression Bell View probably would not have been invented had it not been for the existence of Bellevue. The changes in its form may have arisen from a feeling that the Anglicized expression was poorly spelled French. Belmont (Warren co.) later became Schonberg.

In the French group belong Allotat (Clayton co.) later Garnavillo; Bois d'Arc (Grundy co.); Bon Accord (Johnson co.), name of the post office at South Liberty;² Bonair (Howard co.); Coulee des Sioux (Clayton co.) later McGregor's Landing, then McGregor; Havre (Washington co.); Hugo (Jackson co.); La Grange (Lucas co.); La Hoyt (Henry co.); formerly Ketchums Sidings; Lourdes (Howard co.), perhaps named by the first postmistress, Julia Guyette; Montour [man'tu:r] (Tama co.), formerly Oxford; Orleans (Appanoose co.); Plessis (O'Brien co.); Prairie La Porte (Clayton co.), later Gutténberg; Racine (Buena Vista co.); Sully (Jasper co.); and Tallyrand (Keokuk co.).

Bonaparte (Van Buren co.), formerly Meek's Mills, was named for the French emperor by William Meek, founder. Its former post office name was New Lexington. There was also a Napoleon in Johnson co., also called Paper Town, and one in Van Buren co. Capoli (Allamakee co.) is from Cap-a-l'ail, or Cape a l'ale sauvage, according to the explorers Schoolcraft and Beltrami, respectively. Fontainebleau (Harrison co.) is said to be a contraction of Fontaine Belle Eau, but it may have been named directly after the French Fontainebleau. The first postmaster here, Charles Larpenteur, was French. For a time this town changed its name to Little Sioux. There was also a Fontaine (Hardin co.), later Ackley; and a Fontanelle (Adair co.), formerly Summerset. La Crew (Lee co.), is probably from French *la cru*, vineyard. La Porte City (Black Hawk co.), formerly Laporte City, is from La Porte, Indiana. Lyons (Clinton co.), is after Lyons, France. Marquette (Clayton co.), formerly North McGregor, was renamed for Father Marquette. Mondieu (Linn co.) probably had a story connected with its founding. Montpelier [mant'piljr] (Madison co.) changed its name and site³ to

² An Iowa town, its post office, and its railway station did not necessarily have the same name, particularly if rival factions arose among the inhabitants, the Post Office Dept., and the railroad company.

³ Early towns sometimes moved, buildings and all, to a more favorable location, usually on a new railroad line which had by-passed the town.

Independence, the name later being changed back to Montpelier, and then to Winterset. Montrose (Lee co.) was formerly Cut Nose, then Fort Des Moines, later Mount of Roses. Nautrille (Bremer co.) was formerly Neutral being neutral land by treaty with the Indians. The change was apparently the result of confusion in the mails; also, Neutral may have fallen into disfavor at a time when to be neutral was to be unpatriotic.⁴ There were four Parises, in Davis, Decatur, Linn, and Washington counties, the first of these having a post office called Bunch, and the last having one called Valley. Rochelle (Adams co.), formerly East Nodaway, afterwards became Nodaway. Its post office was called 1876. Tetes des Morts or Tete de Mort (Jackson co.) is after the nearby river, which is said to have acquired its name because severed heads were seen floating down the river during an Indian battle in that region. Father Michael Flammig, early pioneer, disliked the name and changed it to St. Donatus. Waterloo (Blackhawk co.), formerly Prairie Rapids, is related only indirectly to the Battle of Waterloo, the name having been selected from a post office directory as having the "right ring to it." Nearby Cedar Falls promptly dubbed it Water-low.

Two French Utopias were established in Iowa: Icaria (Adams co.), later Queen City, an Icarian community named after Etienne Cabet's *Voyage en Icarie*; and Phalanx (Mahaska co.), one of several communities or phalanxes set up by the Fourier Association.

The word *French* itself furnished a few towns: French (Pottawattamie co.); French Creek (Allamakee co.), also written Frenchcreek; Frenchtown (Black Hawk co.), later Gilbertsville; and Frenchtown (Keokuk co.), another name for Baxter.

Admiration for the Marquis de Lafayette led to the establishment of Lafayette in Linn co., formerly Otter Creek; in Louisa co.; and in Marshal co., the latter afterward becoming Albion. The same person is probably the source of the name Fayette (Fayette co.), of the county, and probably of Marquisville (Polk co.), later Saylor.

Des Moines [də'moin, di'moin] (Polk co.), formerly Raccoon River later Fort Desmoines, takes its name from the river on which it lies. The latter is variously explained as 1) from a group of Trappist monks settled in the region (Nicollet's theory), 2) meaning "the less," with reference to a small tribe of Indians living on the river bank nearest the town (LeClaire's theory), 3) "Riviere de Moyen," lying between the Mississippi and the Missouri Rivers, 4) from Moingona [moin'gonə], the French version of Indian Mi-ko-nang, meaning "road" or "at the road," a portage. There is also a town Moingona in Boone co. Other forms of the name are Des Moines City (Mahaska co.), and East, North, and West Des Moines, all in Polk co., West Des Moines being formerly Valley Junction. There were three Forts Des Moines in Iowa. It was desired to name the one established

⁴ Read, Allen W., *A study of Iowa place-names selected from counties A through F*. unp. M.A. thesis, State University of Iowa, 1926.

in 1843 Fort Raccoon, but the War Department vetoed this as being in shockingly bad taste.

German

Almost all German names were the work of German settlers. This apparently commonplace relationship is in reality unusual. Of the half-dozen chief foreign influences in this area, German is the only one whose basis of existence is settlement.

The word *German* appears in German (Hancock co.); and German City (Woodbury co.), both of these being settlements of the nationality named. There are also Germania (Kossuth co.), later Lakota; German Valley (Kossuth co.); and Germanville (Jefferson co.), formerly Deedsville.

Other names, mostly from places in Germany, are: Baden (Keokuk co., Union co.); Belvidere (Monona co.); Berlin (Hardin co.); Berlin (Scott co.), name of the post office at Parkhurst; Berlin (Tama co.), German settlement; Bettendorf (Scott co.), German settlement; Bismark (Clayton co., Union co.); Coburg (Montgomery co.); Dramen (Mitchell co), or perhaps this is after Drammen, Norway; Dresden (Chickasaw co.), after Dresden, Germany; Dresden (Poweshiek co.), with a post office formerly called Deep River; Frankfort (Montgomery co.); Graf [græf] (Dubuque co.); Grunewald [grunwold] (Lucas co.); Hamburg (Fremont co.), after Hamburg, Germany; Hanover (Allamakee co., Buena Vista co.); Hohenzollern (Crawford co.), formerly Schleswig; Konigsmark [ˈkɛnɪɡsmɑrk] (Linn co.); Metz (Jasper co.); Nassau [ˈnæsau] (Keokuk co.); Noeble [nobl] (Kossuth co.); New Munich (Sac co.); Prussia (Adair co.); Schonberg (Warren co.) formerly Belmont; Westphalia (Shelby co.); Wittemburg (Jasper co.).

Guttenberg [ɡʌtnbɜrg] (Clayton co.), formerly Prairie la Porte, was named after the inventor of the printing press, Johann Gutenberg, the change in spelling resulting from an error in the first town plat. Humboldt (Humboldt co.), formerly Springvale, was renamed after the German scientist, Baron Alexander von Humboldt, as was also the county. Rubens (Pocahontas co.), formerly Powhattan, was renamed after the Flemish painter, of German origin. Schleswig (Crawford co.), formerly Morgan, then Hohenzollern, was named by its German settlers after the province of Schleswig-Holstein. There is also a Holstein [holstin] (Ida co.). Steuben [stʊbn] (Davis co.) commemorates Baron von Steuben, general in the American Revolution.

Spanish

Spanish names derive chiefly from interest in the Mexican War, 1846-1948, which was a period of rapid expansion in Iowa. Both by State decree and by local initiative, Mexican battlefields, generals and towns were commemorated, and other Spanish words were introduced.

We find Altamont (Shelby co.); Amarill (Delaware co.); Cordova (Marion co.); De Leon (Cherokee co.); Del Norte (Davis co.); Juan (Washington

co.); Laredo [lə'ridə] (Mahaska co.), formerly Nine Mile; La Vega (Des Moines co.), later Lavega; La Yerba (Hardin co.); Lodo Mello (Delaware co.); Lodomillo (Clayton co.); Paralta (Linn co.); Rubio (Washington co.); Salina (Jefferson co.), or perhaps this is from Latin; Santiago (Polk co.); Sonora (Poweshiek co.); Vega (Henry co.); Wadaloup (Grundy co.) post office at Jerusalem, probably from Guadalupe.

Buena Vista [bjunə vɪstə] co. was named after a battlefield of the Mexican War. There is also a town of that name in Clinton co., formerly Grave-yard Bluff Settlement; at one time one in Harrison co., later Whiteboro; and one in Lee co.; also Buenavista (Jefferson co.); North Buena Vista (Clayton co.); Alta Vista (Chickasaw co.), formerly Elk Creek; Vista (Buchanan co.); and Belle Vista [bɛlə vɪstə] (Plymouth co.).

Almonte (Clinton co.), formerly Elk River, is said to be named after the Mexican General Almonte, also said to be after a steep hill in the vicinity. If after the (enemy) general, it perhaps shows an interesting lack of prejudice in the matter of names. Alta (Buena Vista co.) may result from from being the highest point along the railroad, but it is also said to be after Alta or Altaí Blair, daughter of an early settler. Camargo (Lee co.) was the railroad name at Vincennes. It later changed to Vincennes, and Vincennes later changed to Sand Prairie, which apparently was a former railroad name. Cerro Gordo [ˈsɛrə ˈɡɔːdo] co., and probably also Cerro Gordo in Mills co., were after a battlefield of the Mexican War. De Soto (Dallas co.) is variously explained as named after the Spanish explorer Hernando De Soto, or after a railroad official. Durango (Dubuque co.), after Durango, Mexico, was once called Timber Diggings. Eldora (Hardin co.) has four explanations: 1) after Eldorado, Cal. 2) originally Eldorado, because gold was discovered here. 3) after Eldora Edgington, daughter of a pioneer. 4) after a name found in a book by Mrs. Lois B. Edgington. The town may have been named for a person who, in turn, was named from a book. Eldora Junction (Hardin co.) is after Eldora, the home of the namer. Eldorado occurs in Decatur, Fayette and Harrison counties. The one in Fayette co., formerly spelled El Dorado, was once nicknamed Bloomertown, through the activities of two disciples of Mrs. Bloomer, pioneer in women's fashions. Ioka [aɪ'okə] (Keokuk co.) was said to have been named after a Mexican battlefield. The name was probably Indian, and perhaps related to the battle cry ioká-ioká of certain South American Indians. Iuka (Lyon co.), later Granite, may have been named for Iuka, Mississippi. Tama (Tama co.) was formerly Iuka. Leon [ˈliən] (Decatur co.), formerly Independence, changed to South Independence to avoid confusion with Independence in Buchanan co., later becoming Leon. Madrid (Boone co.) was formerly Swede Point. Following a local disagreement, it was renamed in 1855 after the Spanish capital in order to spite the opposing faction by giving the town a name for which its founders would feel contempt. For some time afterward the post office continued as Swede Point. Monterey (Davis co., Lee co.) comes from the Mexi-

can Battle of Monterey, and Montezuma (Poweshiek co.) from the Aztec emperor of Mexico. Nevada [nə'vedə] (Story co.) is said to be named after the Sierra Nevadas, or perhaps after Sierra Nevada Thrift, daughter of a roving pioneer who named *her* after the mountains. Palo Alto [ˈpælo ˈæltə] (Louisa co.), and Palo Alto co. are after the Mexican battlefield. There is also a Palo [ˈpelo] (Linn co.). Portoro (Van Buren co.), was originally Port Oro, "port of gold." Sonora (Poweshiek co.) is from Sonora, Mexico.

Italian

There are a few Italian names of towns, among them Aetna (Wayne co.); Mount Aetna (Adams co.); Como (Crawford co.); Florence (Benton co.), later Northland then Nordland, probably not directly after Florence, Italy; Garibaldi (Keokuk co.); Genoa (Wayne co.); Genoa Bluff or Genoa Bluffs (Iowa co.); Milan (Keokuk co., Lucas co.); Palermo (Grundy co.); Paoli (Palo Alto co.); Parma (Pottawattamie co.); Turin (Monona co.), formerly Arcola and Bluff Point; Verona (Poweshiek co.). Marengo [mə'reŋɡo] (Iowa co.) was named after the Italian battlefield. The county commissioners once attempted to change it to Valley Forge, but the new name failed to be accepted. Verdi (Washington co.), after the Italian composer, was formerly McCoid, and then McJunkin.

English

The number of immigrants into Iowa from England was small, but financial interests of English capitalists in this region, and fondness for English literature created some English place names. Among those probably derived from authors and books are Byron (Humboldt co.); Carnforth (Poweshiek co.), named out of a book; Dickens (Clay co.); also Pickwick (Wapello co.); Dryden (Tama co.); Hardy (Humboldt co.), known to be named for Thomas Hardy; Ivanhoe (Linn co.); Lytton (Sac co.), after Bulwer-Lytton; Milton (Allamakee co., Jefferson co.); West Milton (Guthrie co.); Radcliffe (Hardin co.), named by a railroad agent after the author. Horace Walpole's *Castle of Otranto* has given its name to Otranto [o'trænto] (Mitchell co.), formerly Orville or Orrville, later Old Otranto: Otranto Station (Mitchell co.), platted as Bartlett Grove, but changed to conform to the railroad name.

Other English personal names are chiefly for statesmen: Athelstan (Taylor co.); Balfour (Mills co.); Buckingham (Tama co.); Cromwell (Union co.); Cromwell Centre (Clay co.); Gladstone (Tama co.); Harcourt (Webster co.), named by an admirer of the British statesman; Raleigh (Emmet co.); Stanhope (Hamilton co.), after Lady Hester Stanhope.

Granville (Sioux co.), formerly Ricker, was named after Sir Richard Granville or Grenville, navigator and explorer. Havelock (Pocahontas co.), was named by a railroad engineer for a British soldier in India. Ireton (Sioux co.), came from General Henry Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law.

English Settlement (Marion co.), was formerly Durham's Ford. There are also North English (Iowa co.), formerly called Soaptown; and South English (Keokuk co.).

English places represented are Ascot (Pottawattamie co.); Avon (Polk co.), formerly Avon Station; Avondale (Adair co.), formerly Adair; Bath (Cerro Gordo co.); Bristol (Worth co.); Cambridge (Story co.); Derby (Lucas co.), formerly Henderson; Devon (Chickasaw co.); Dover (Iowa co.); Dover Mills (Fayette co.); Essex (Page co.); Gomersal (Benton co.), supposed to have been named for Gomersal, England; Guernsey (Poweshiek co.), settled by emigrants from the island of Guernsey; Kew (Ringgold co.); London (Benton co.), later Robin, perhaps the same as Mt. Olive; Norwich (Page co.); Stratford (Hamilton co.), after Shakespeare's home; Surry (Greene co.); Truro (Madison co.), formerly Ego; Wooster (Jefferson co.), probably after Wooster, Ohio. Yarmouth (Des Moines co.) and Yorkshire (Harrison co.) were probably named directly after the English city and county.

Albion (Marshall co.) was formerly Lafayette, but changed to avoid confusion with Lafayette in Polk co. Alton (Sioux co.), formerly East Orange, was renamed after Alton, England, English capitalists being interested in its settlement. Epworth (Dubuque co.), formerly White Water, later Hogansville, was for Epworth, England, birthplace of John Wesley. Hull in Boone and Sioux counties, the latter once called Pattersonville, were named after Hull, England. Welton (Clinton co.), after Welton Dale, England, later became Low Moor, from the trade name stamped on rails imported from England. The brand happened to be noticed during discussion of a name for the new town. Manchester (Delaware co.), formerly Delaware Centre, was also once known as Burrington, but changed to avoid confusion with Burlington. Some say it was named after the English city, others, after a settler called Chesterman. It may have been a combination of the two. Oxford is represented by Oxford Mills (Jones co.); and Oxford Junction (Jones co.), formerly Oxford Junction, then Garfield then Oxford Junction again. Oxford (Johnson co.) was chosen by lot, after the former New York home of one of the settlers. Quorn (Plymouth co.), later Kingsley, which is also English, was named for Quorn, England. Rochdale (Shelby co.), later Botna, was named after Rochdale, England. Woodbine (Harrison co.) was the former English home of Mrs. Butler, wife of the first postmaster. Settlers wanted Harrison City, but the post office disapproved, there being several Harrisons in Iowa. It is also said to be so called because of the vines found there. Summerset (Adair co.), later Fontanelle, and Summerset (Warren co.) may derive from the English place. Analogous to Summerset is Winterset (Madison co.), which was named by a group of early settlers while trying to warm themselves in a cabin during a cold winter. Tradition says that when the name Summerset was proposed, one of them retorted, "Summerset be damned! Better call it Winterset!"

Scotch

Afton (Union co.), formerly Pisgah, was named by Mrs. James Baker, early settler, after the song *Flow Gently, Sweet Afton*, by Robert Burns. In honor of Ayr, Burns' home, is Mount Ayr (Ringgold co.), and there is a Burns (Calhoun co.). Midlothian (Wapello co.), a name for Edinburgh may be from Scott's *Heart of Midlothian*. At a ceremony to christen a town Harmon (Bremer co.), by a slip of the tongue the speaker gave it the name of the book he had just been reading—Scott's *Waverley*. The name was allowed to remain, spelled Waverly. Other names are Athol (Sioux co.); Ayrshire (Palo Alto co.); Ben Lomond (Pocohontas co.); Caledonia (Ringgold co.), said to have been influenced by Scott's *Lady of the Lake*; Clyde (Jasper co.); Clydesdale (Clayton co.), a cooperative Scotch colony; Doon (Lyon co.), named by H. D. Rice, early settler, after the Scotch river; Dundee (Dalaware co.); Edinburgh (Jones co.), formerly Jonesville; Edinburg (Union co.); Hoprig (Emmet co.), named by Scotch settlers after Hoprig, Scotland; Scotch Grove (Jones co.); Sutherland (O'Brien co.), formerly Southerland, after the Duke of Sutherland Melrose (Monroe co.), a Catholic community formerly called East Melrose, was probably named after Melrose Abbey in Scotland, but Melrose in Grundy and Harrison counties are perhaps of Latin origin.

Irish

Irish names are Ballyclough (Dubuque co.), Irish settlement; Belfast (Lee co.); Dublin (Washington co.), formerly Dutch Creek; Erin (Buchanan co.); Irish Grove (Lucas co.); Irish Grove (Warren co.), also called Dorrville; Shannon City (Union co.); Tara (Dubuque co.).

Avoca (Pottawattamie co.) is from the river described in Thomas Moore's poem *The meeting of the waters*. The influence of the patriot Robert Emmet is shown by the county and communities Emmet (Emmet co.) formerly called Granger Grove; Emmetsburg (Palo Alto co.), formerly Emmitsburgh, then Emmetsburgh; and that of Charles Stuart Parnell by Parnell in Iowa and Johnson counties, the former once having been known as Callan. Melleray [mel'rei] (Dubuque co.) is from Melleray Abbey in Ireland. Merville (Woodbury co.) is said to be named after 1) Merville, Ireland. 2) Mo. (River) plus -ville. (Modale is an example of a name actually made by the latter method, although by mistake.) There were two O'Briens, but the one in Clinton co. changed to Goose Lake to avoid confusion with the one in O'Brien co. Ossian [aʃn] (Winneshiek co.) commemorates both the supposed Irish poet, and also John Ossian Porter, early settler. Garnaville [gərnə'vɪlə] (Clayton co.), formerly Allotat, comes from Garnaville, Ireland. New Ireland (Dallas co.) was in succession McKay, Wiscotta, New Ireland, Redfield, and again, New Ireland.

Welsh

From Wales are Cambria (Wayne co.), the Latin name of Wales; Hawarden [*l'heiwōrdn*] (Sioux co.), after the Welsh residence of William Gladstone; and Wales (Montgomery co., Worth co.). Cardiff (Mitchell co.), later Burr Oak, the post office at Leo, was probably after Cardiff, New York. Carnarvon (Sac co.), formerly Wall Lake Junction, was named by N. M. Hughes after his former home.

Scandinavian

The Scandinavian countries are well represented with Bergholm (Wapello co.), a Swedish settlement; Boxholm (Boone co.); Flugstad (Webster co.); Fredsville (Grundy co.), Danish "village of peace"; Nordland (Worth co.), formerly Northland; Ringsted (Emmet co.), after the Danish home of the wife of the postmaster; Saint Ansgar [sent *l'ænsгар*] (Mitchell co.); Saint Olaf (Hancock co.), Norwegian community; Stavanger (Marshall co.).

The Swedish novelist Fredrika Bremer gave her name to Bremer co., Bremer (Monroe co.), later Lovilia, and Frederika (Bremer co.). formerly spelled Frederica. Homlstad (Montgomery co.), later Stanton, was the namesake of Holmstad, Sweden, former home of a settler. Thor (Humboldt co.), formerly Verbeck, and probably Woden (Hancock co.) were named by Norwegian settlers after Norse gods.

The countries themselves furnish Denmark (Lee co.), formerly called The Haystack; Norway (Benton co.), formerly Florence, but changed by a Norwegian donor of land; Norway (Fayette co.); Swede Bend (Webster co.); Swedeberg (Crawford co.), later Kiron; Swede Point (Boone co.), later Madrid; Swedesburg (Henry co.), formerly spelled Swedesburgh. There is also a Swea City or Swea [*sweə*] (Kossuth co.), formerly Reynolds, renamed after the native name for Sweden.

Dutch

Amsterdam is represented by towns in Hancock co. (with a post office formerly named Upper Grove), Marion co. (also called New Amsterdam, a Dutch settlement which was succeeded by Howell), and Wapello co. Memorials to the Dutch house of Orange are East Orange (Sioux co.), later Alton; Orange (Clinton co.); Orange City (Sioux co.), formerly Orange City, then Orange, then Orange City again; and Orange Grove (Guthrie co.); and Maurice (Sioux co.), after Count Maurice of Nassau, Prince of Orange and son of William the Silent. Towns in the Netherlands gave names of Breda [*bri:də*] (Carroll co.), Laurens (Pocahontas co.), said to have been named out of a history book; and Leerdam (Marion co.), which was platted but not settled. Rembrandt (Buena Vista co.), formerly Orsland

after the founder, was renamed for the Dutch painter. There was a Dutch Creek (Washington co.), after a nearby creek, but it changed its name to Dublin.

Swiss

Names that appear to come from Switzerland are Alpine (Wapello co.); also Alpine City; Alps (Mills co.); Berne (Crawford co.), after Berne, Switzerland; Geneva (Benton co., Franklin co., Muscatine co.); Lucerne (Wayne co.); Luzerne (Benton co.), formerly Buckeye, renamed by owner of the town site after the Swiss city; Zurich (Jones co.); Zwingle (Dubuque co.), after Ulrich Zwingli, Swiss religious leader; Zwingle [zwɪŋgl] (Jackson co.).

Russian

Russia may have contributed some of the following: Alma (Jackson co.), possibly for Crimean battlefield, more likely after a girl's name; Ladoga (Taylor co.); Moscow [moscau] (Muscatine co.); Odessa (Louisa co.); Sevastopol (Polk co.); Volga (Clayton co.), Volga City, after the river, which was named after the Russian river; Volga City (Fayette co.) changed to avoid confusion with the nearby Clayton co. Volga.

Others

A Canadian group includes Klondike (Lyon co.); Ottawa (Clarke co.), later Woodburn; Ottawa City (Poweshiek co.), known as Humbug Town, being platted but not settled; Quebec (Hardin co.); Toronto (Clinton co.), after Toronto, Canada, home of one of the settlers.

The Mediterranean alone furnishes Cairo (Louisa co.), probably after Cairo, Illinois; Carthage (Johnson co.), probably after Carthage, New York, Egypt (Fremont co.), later Bartlett; Elkader [ɛl'kedə] (Clayton co.), after the Algerian chieftain Abd-el-Kader, in the news at that time; Gibraltar (Lyon co.); Halfa (Emmet co.), said to be named after the Wadi Halfa in Egypt; Illyria (Fayette co.); Malta (Harrison co., Marshall co.), the latter formerly Gerard; Memphis (Appanoose co.); Oran (Bremer co., Fayette co.), Palmyra (Jasper co., Warren co.), probably after Palmyra, New York; Rhodes (Marshall co.), formerly Edenville; Tripoli (Bremer co.); Tunis (Wapello co.).

Others come from all the corners of the earth: Antwerp (Cedar co.); Batavia (Jefferson co.), formerly Creesville, and for one month (June 1884) officially known as Greenland; Brazil (Appanoose co.); Cuba (Hancock co.); Cuba (Monroe co.), formerly Fairview, also Mantua; Cuba City (Louisa co.); Darien (Kossuth co.); Havana (Greene co.); Iranistan (Cass co.), with a post office formerly called Cold Springs; Jamaica (Guthrie co.), formerly Sedalia, afterwards Vanness or Van Nest; Lithgow (Cedar co.); Livonia (Cerro Gordo co.); Luni (Wright co.); Luzon (Hancock co.), later Kanawha;

Luzon (Emmet co.), later Gruver; Manilla (Crawford co.); Melbourne (Marshall co., Plymouth co.); East Peru (Madison co.); Kossuth co., after the Hungarian patriot Louis Kossuth; Kossuth (Des Moines co.); Kossuth Centre (Kossuth co.); Buda (Pocahontas co.); New Buda (Decatur co.); projected Hungarian colony; Moravia (Appanoose co.), named by settlers from that province; Ojedo (Harrison co.), formerly Jeddo City, said to be after Yedo, former name of Tokyo, but more likely after Jeddo, New York; Panama (Shelby co.); Pekin (Keokuk co.), formerly Ioka Station; Persia (Harrison co.); Peru (Dubuque co., Madison co.); Pulaski (Davis co.), after the Polish Count; Siam (Taylor co.), post office at Buchanan; Warsaw (Wayne co.).

Biblical and Related

Biblical names, while mostly foreign towns, form a special category, since they came into being through motives somewhat different from those which produced the others. Some of these Iowa towns were intended to become ideal homes for weary pioneers, as, for example, Beulah, Canaan, Eden. Some mark the westward trek of the Mormons. The saints' names seem to express the pious hope that the inhabitants of these new places would be correspondingly virtuous. Many must have appeared simply as the most natural and familiar words the Bible-reading pioneers knew, without thought of their being foreign.

Names suggesting origin in the Bible or other religious sources are: Berea (Adair co.), named by Mormons; Bethany Junction (Decatur co.); Bethel (Fayette co.), later Alpha; Bethel (Marion co.), formerly Bethel City; Bethel (Van Buren co., Washington co.); Bethesda (Page co.); Bethlehem (Wayne co.), named by Mormons; Beulah (Benton co.), formerly Potato Hill, later Shellsburgh; Beulah (Clayton co.); Cana (Buchanan co.); Canaan (Adams co.), later Simpson; Carmel (Sioux co.); Deseret (Pottawattamie co.), Mormon name meaning *beehive*; Eden (Fayette co.); Edenville (Marshall co.), later Rhodes; Edom (Keokuk co.), also called Eden; Gaza [¹gezə] (O'Brien co.), formerly Woodstock; Gilead (Adair co., Poweshiek co.); Hebron (Adair co.), named by Mormons; Jericho (Chickasaw co.); Jerusalem (Grundy co.), with post office called Wadaloup; Jordan (Boone co.), formerly Midway; Lamoni (Decatur co.), formerly Sedgewick, named by Mormons; Lehigh (Webster co.), perhaps after the Mormon name Lehi; Macedonia (Pottawattamie co.), named by Mormons; Mount Calvary (Davis co.); Mount Carmel (Carroll co.), Roman Catholic settlement; Mount Olive (Mills co.), formerly London, its post office formerly Fayette; Mount Zion (Van Buren co.), named by Mormons; Nephi (Harrison co.), named by Mormons; New Sharon (Mahaska co.), formerly Sharon, but changed to avoid confusion with the Sharon in Warren co.; Olivet (Mahaska co., Union co.); Palestine (Johnson co., Story co., Van Buren co., Wapello co.); Petersburg (Keokuk co.), later incorporated into What

Cheer; Petersburg (Delaware co.), Roman Catholic settlement; Pisgah (Harrison co.), formerly Mount Pisgah, Mormon settlement; Point Palestine (Story co.), probably the same as Palestine; Salem (Henry co.), Quaker settlement; Salem (Johnson co., also one near the border between Scott and Muscatine counties); Sharon (Warren co.); Sharon (Appanoose co.), Mormon settlement; Sharon Center (Johnson co.); Smyrna (Clarke co.), formerly Glenns; Solomon (Mills co.); Torah (Linn co.); Zion (Adair co.), Mormon settlement.

Amana [ə'mænə] (Iowa co.), meaning *remain firm* or *true*, is part of the formerly communistic German "Community of true inspiration." The other colonies are East Amana, High Amana, Middle Amana, Upper and Lower South Amana, and Homestead.

Goshen (Ringgold co.), was named by Mormons, probably after Goshen, Indiana. The town later moved to the site of Knowlton and became Diagonal.

Kiron [ˈkɪrən] (Crawford co.), formerly Swedeberg, is said to be named after 1) Kidron, a brook in the Old Testament (with the *d* omitted for euphony), or, 2) a settlement in Manchuria. Neither explanation is entirely satisfactory.

Lebanon (Van Buren co.) was the name proposed by William Woltmann, one of the principal promotors of immigration to the new settlement, later Indian Prairie.

Pella (Marion co.), meaning *escape* or *place of refuge* was named by Dutch settlers.

Shibboleth (Cerro Gordo co.) was named by Masonic settlers. It was formerly Masonic Grove, being once the grove and farm of John Long, settler. Later it became Masonville and Mason Long, afterwards Mason City, for his son Mason.

Among saints' names are Saint Joseph (Kossuth co.), formerly Hale; Saint Joseph's Prairie (Dubuque co.); Saint Mary (Mills co.), named by Col. Peter A. Sarpy, Roman Catholic, who laid out the town; Saint Marys (Warren co.); Saint Paul (Lee co.), Roman Catholic settlement; Saint Petersburg (Dubuque co.), German settlement. Saint John (Harrison co.), also Saint Johns, later became Old Saint Johns, nearby Missouri Valley once having been known as New Saint John. There is also Saint John (Pottawattamie co.), formerly Howsier.

• Meetings of Associations •

The Conference on Modern Language Teaching, jointly sponsored by the New York State Federation of Modern Language Teachers and the School of Education, Syracuse University, held at Syracuse University July 19th to 21st, 1945.

THE CONFERENCE ON MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING held this year on July 19th to 21st was, in the opinion of the attendants, highly successful. Expanded from the usual one-day meeting to a three-day session, the conference was remarkably well attended in spite of travel restrictions. A brief summary of the events follows:

I. Thursday, July 19th.

1. 11 A.M. Dr. William Milwitzky, President of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, "The Teacher and the New Language Outlook." Dr. Milwitzky stressed the need for a well-rounded training for modern language teachers in order to attain not only reading proficiency but also oral proficiency. It is imperative that language teachers—both in service and in training—work continuously to improve their knowledge and abilities in the language and strive to revise their teaching techniques to meet the new demands for stress on the oral side.
2. 2 P.M. Dr. Homero Serfs, Special Lecturer in Spanish, Syracuse University. "Language-Teaching in Europe and America: A Comparison." This talk first gave an overview of the differences in general attitude between the two types of work based on the differences in situation. More and more the American need for knowledge of foreign languages will mean more and more stress on daily use. The speaker described in detail the work done at Madrid by the Escuela Plurilingüe and the Escuela Internacional where children studied several languages from the earliest grades under native instructors.
3. 3 P.M. Dr. Albert D. Menut, Professor of Romance Languages, Syracuse University, "What About the *Other* Languages in High Schools?" After a review of the status of the less commonly taught languages in the past and of the probable need for them in the future, the conclusion was drawn that such languages as Portuguese, Russian and some Oriental languages might appear in the curricula of large municipal high schools. In the average or small high school, however, costs and administrative difficulties, as well as limited demands, would probably bar the introduction of such subjects.
4. 7:30 P.M. At the Maison Française, Dr. Milwitzky regaled an enthusiastic audience with personal reminiscences of his student days in Paris and his associations with many of the famous scholars and men of letters of the 1890's.

II. Friday, July 20th.

1. 9:30 A.M. Dr. J. Cayce Morrison, Assistant Commissioner of Education, New York State Department of Education, "An Administrator Looks at Language Study." The text of this address will appear in an early number of the *Modern Language Journal*.
2. 11 A.M. Dr. Frederick Agard, University of Chicago, "The University of Chicago Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language." Dr. Agard described the aims and methods of this investigation. He pointed out some of the ideas which have become current since the inception of the ASTP and indicated some possible trends for the future. At present, however, the Investigation is simply in the process of finding facts, and is not ready to draw any conclusions.

3. 2 P.M. Professors Hazel J. Bullock and Sara Valenzuela, Assistant professors of Romance Languages, Syracuse University, "A Year of Intensive Language Courses: Lessons Learned from the Experience." Professor Bullock described in some detail the work done in Intermediate French and gave an analysis of the results, which were very encouraging. Professor Valenzuela did the same for Beginning Spanish. Both agreed that the work was hampered by a lack of available material, but that it had been possible largely to overcome this by the use of original materials.
4. 3 P.M. Mr. Domenic DeFrancesco, Head of Language Department, Benjamin Franklin High School, Rochester, N. Y., "A Description of the Intensive Language Courses in the Rochester Summer High School." Mr. DeFrancesco described the methods used in the 4-hour daily classes being conducted in the Rochester Summer High School. It was too early to make any definite statement as to results, but indications were highly promising. He told in some detail of the use made of phonograph recordings of materials in the textbook being used.

III. Saturday, July 21st.

1. Meeting of the committees of the State Curriculum Study of the New York State Federation of Modern Language Teachers. Representatives of the French, German, Italian and Spanish committees outlined what they had been doing and discussed plans for the coming year. Since the Study is in its initial stages, no specific report was adopted at this time. Progress in the work is evident and the enthusiasm of the committees for the project remains at a high level. The coming year should bring some definite information concerning the *status quo* in New York State and provide the basis for constructive suggestions for the future.

WINTHROP H. RICE,

President, New York State Federation of Modern Language Teachers.

• Notes and News •

EXCERPTS FROM EDUCATION IN REVIEW

EDITOR'S NOTE: The following excerpts are highlights of an article "Foreign-Area Studies to be Expanded at Many Colleges to Meet Post-War Demands" written by Benjamin Fine, Director of the educational column, *Education in Review*, of the *New York Times*. This article appeared in the *Sunday Times* August 12, 1945.

Colleges and universities throughout the United States are planning to increase their offerings in foreign-area studies when campuses return to normal. An increased interest in the languages and history of other nations is noted in typical institutions everywhere.

During the war, encouraged by the Army and Navy, American colleges stressed the importance of foreign fields, especially as these areas related to the war effort. Particular attention has been paid to such lands as the Far East, Soviet Union, China and Germany. A number of universities have trained men to take their places as part of the civil affairs administrative personnel which is to govern the enemy countries.

That the foreign studies will continue in the post-war period appears evident from reports received by this department. Many colleges intend to offer well-rounded courses, designed to train men for peacetime occupations. Typical of the action planned is that taken by Yale University. Other institutions are considering similar programs.

Establishment of a foreign-area studies program at Yale University as a permanent post-war addition which would give increased emphasis to foreign nations and their languages is

recommended by a committee of six faculty members appointed by President Charles Seymour a year ago to explore the possibilities in this field.

Pointing out that for the past two years the study of other countries and of foreign languages has occupied a prominent place in the wartime curriculum of American universities, the report asserts that this wartime educational program can and should be continued in peacetime. . . .

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Although Yale should not try "to cover the globe," its position of leadership in the field of international studies justifies a fairly wide offering, to include the Soviet Union, Europe, the Far East, and Latin America, the report asserts. It recommends that courses dealing with these four major areas and their contemporary culture and political institutions be added to the curriculum as soon as possible. It is the opinion of the committee that these courses would be as valuable to general students of the liberal arts curriculum as they would to future specialists in foreign affairs.

In the vocational phase, the committee favors a graduate program of foreign-area and language studies comparable in method and purpose to the Army Specialized Training Program and the Civil Affairs Training School, since many students will wish to prepare for definite missions abroad, either public or private. . . .

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Tremendous interest in the study of foreign languages is evident on American campuses today. Fifty-five colleges and universities have participated in the foreign-area and language phase of the Army Specialized Training Program, ten universities in the Army Civil Affairs Training Program and two universities in the Navy counterpart of this. The Army School of Military Government at Charlottesville, Va., and two college civilian training schools have maintained similar courses of study.

During the post-war period it appears likely that Yale, as well as other leading American colleges and universities, will stress the languages, history and governments of foreign nations. It is the hope of college officials that such studies will lead to closer cooperation and better understanding among the peoples of the world.

EXCERPTS FROM THE REVIEW FOR 1944 OF THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

EDITOR'S NOTE: Highlights from the Review for 1944 written by Raymond B. Fosdick, President of The Rockefeller Foundation.

OPENING OUR OWN WINDOWS

We need, of course, to make sure that our own doors and windows here at home are open. For while the war did not seal us off as completely as France and Poland and Norway were sealed off, it nevertheless found us unprepared in terms of language and knowledge and understanding to live intelligently with our neighbors in the closely knit world of the twentieth century. There has been a parochialism about America and her attitude toward other nations which only now is beginning to break down.

The matter of language is a case in point. Although our thoughts and interests were turning to the East, there was no school in the United States for the adequate study of Oriental languages and cultures, and consequently no opportunity for the interpretation of ideas, traditions and customs through the medium of tongues other than English. And this was at a time when Europe had developed a dozen such schools. In relation to Russia the gaps in our knowledge were particularly conspicuous. Until ten years ago there were but few courses given in American universities in the Russian language, and no broad resources were developed for understanding the social and cultural life of a nation which in a single generation has become one of the most powerful forces in the world.

Even today our resources are pitifully meager. Only one university accepts Russian as a

language with which undergraduates may satisfy the usual language requirements; and it is possible to thumb through the catalogues of courses in even large institutions without finding the words "Slavic" or "Russian." Nowhere, with the exception of a summer course at Cornell, has there been a systematic approach to the main problem—an approach in which language study would be combined with the study of Russian history, politics, economics, and culture to present an intelligible picture of Russian society. In a recent editorial the *New York Herald Tribune* summed up the situation as follows: "In the world of tomorrow it seems likely that 140,000,000 Americans will find themselves living with 200,000,000 Soviet citizens. Thrice armed is the man who understands his neighbor's past, his present way of life, and something about his hopes for the future." . . .

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Ten years ago, largely through the American Council of Learned Societies, The Rockefeller Foundation began to support courses in Russian, Chinese and Japanese languages in a number of American institutions. Help has been given also to instruction in Turkish, Arabic Persian, Hindustani, Malayan, Tibetan and Siamese, and the development of dictionaries and grammars, together with translations and other contemporary materials, which will serve as an introduction to the life and culture of all these countries. Altogether over this ten-year period the Foundation has appropriated approximately \$775,000 for these purposes. . . .

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Of course, language is only a tool—but an essential tool to open windows that have long been shut. During the war other countries have undergone experiences that are vastly different, in quality and intensity, from those which we have lived through here in the United States. If we can pry our windows open, we shall have made a first move toward a better mutual understanding with quarters of the world which till now we have too little known.

THIRD ANNUAL STANFORD CONFERENCE ON THE HUMANITIES

The Third Annual Stanford Conference on the Humanities was held on July 26, 27 and 28, 1945 at Stanford University, California. Delegates to the Conference came from 31 colleges and universities in the western states, with five presidents serving as delegates from their own institutions. Limited by ODT regulations the conference was small; nevertheless steps were made in forwarding the work of the two previous conferences: "The Humanities in the War and the Postwar World" and "The Content of Humanistic Education." The theme of this conference was "Elementary Courses in the Humanities."

There were several Working Committees of which one was concerned with Required Modern Language Courses. The program of this Committee follows:

Chairman: DOMINIC ROTUNDA, Chairman of Foreign Languages Department, Mills College

Moderator: F. W. STROTHMANN, Professor of German, Stanford University

Proposition 1: Required modern language courses should emphasize a speaking knowledge.

Proposition 2: Required modern language courses should emphasize a reading knowledge.

Proposition 3: Required modern language courses should emphasize neither a speaking nor a reading knowledge but should regard both as of approximately equal importance.

Panel Speakers:

BORIS GREGORY, Department of Modern Languages, San Jose State College—For Proposition 1

B. Q. MORGAN, Department of Germanic Languages, Stanford University—For Proposition 2

WALTER V. KAULFERS, School of Education, Stanford University—For Proposition 3

Members at Large:

CAROLINE BRADY, Department of English, University of California

FRED STEINHAUSER, Department of Modern Languages, College of the Pacific

KARL YOUNG, Department of English, Brigham Young University

INTER-AMERICAN INSTITUTE

The Inter-American Institute of the Columbus Center of Inter-American Affairs was open to the public for visitation to classes and other programs on May 4 and 5, 1945 at the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. The Columbus Center of Inter-American Affairs is directed by Professor James B. Tharp of Ohio State University. The Institute was founded for teachers of the Social Studies, teachers of Spanish, and for any others interested in fostering understanding of the Other Americas.

Following are the parts of the program of special interest to teachers of Spanish.

FRIDAY EVENING

Social Administration Building, Room 100

Presiding—MISS FRANCES PATTERSON, Oakwood School, Dayton; Ohio President,
Modern Language Teachers Association

- 7:30 "Audio-Visual Aids to Teaching Latin-American Culture." Demonstration-discussion by NORMAN WOELFEL, Teaching Aids Laboratory, Ohio State University
Film strips, recordings, and sound motion pictures shown and discussed. Movies chosen from seven films premiered in April, 1945.

- 8:30 "Latin America in Music and Dance."
Program and commentary by MISS HILDA E. DIERKER, School of Music, Ohio State University

SATURDAY MORNING

Presiding—DR. JAMES B. THARP, Professor of the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Ohio State University

- 9:15 "Phrase and Sentence Patterns: a New Oral Approach to Learning a Foreign Language."

Lecture-demonstration (with the help of a small class of 9th-grade pupils who have not studied Spanish) by DR. ALFRED I. ROEHM, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

- 10:00 Discussion led by PROF. W. S. HENDRIX, Chairman, Department of Romance Languages and Chairman of the University Committee on Latin American Affairs, Ohio State University.

- 10:30 "Program and Materials for the Study of Latin-American Culture." Lecture by DR. HAROLD E. DAVIS, Dean of Administration, Hiram College and Special Educational Consultant, Office of Inter-American Affairs, Washington, D. C.

- 11:00 Discussion led by DR. FRED S. CARLSON, Professor of Latin-American Geography, Ohio State University.

- 11:20 "La Calle de las fantasmas," puppet show by Javier Villafañe, Argentinian playwright and puppeteer. Puppets and direction by MISS MARJORIE BATCHELDER, School of Fine and Applied Arts, Ohio State University. The players are University students.

ATTENTION—TEACHERS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

TESTS NOW AVAILABLE THROUGH THE INVESTIGATION OF THE TEACHING OF A SECOND LANGUAGE

Many teachers of modern foreign languages in the United States are by now familiar with the purposes and scope of the Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language, an edu-

cational research project under way at the University of Chicago under the direction of Professor Ralph W. Tyler. As part of its program, the Investigation has developed a series of tests for the measurement of aural and oral skills in French, German, Russian and Spanish. There follows here a brief description of these tests.

Aural Comprehension.—The testing material, spoken by carefully selected native speakers, is recorded on phonograph records. As the student listens to the record, he has before him a test-booklet and a specially designed answer-sheet for machine-scoring. Each test consists of three parts, requires a maximum of fifty minutes, and may be given to any number of students at a time.

Lower Level.—The lower level tests are designed for students with a running total of 90-130 class hours. Part One consists of twenty-five completion items, each with a triple-choice response (worded in English); for example, the voice says: "*Se cultivan las flores en un—*," and the student answers by choosing among the expressions *garden, box-car, coal-mine*, printed in the test-booklet.—Part Two consists of twenty-five definition items, each with a triple-choice response; for example, the voice says: "*Ein Mann, der Fleisch verkauft,*" and the student chooses his answer from among *baker, butcher, doctor*.—Part Three is made up of six short anecdotes, with from five to nine triple-choice responses, worded in English, on the content of each.

The make-up of the French Lower Level test differs from that of the other languages in that the Completion Series is replaced by thirty Phonetic Accuracy items, each with a quadruple-choice response; for example, the voice says "*parlent*" and the student chooses his answer among the forms *parlons, parlâmes, parlent, parlant*, appearing in the test-booklet.

Upper Level.—The upper level tests are intended for students having a running total of more than 150 class hours. Part One consists of twenty-five definitions; Part Two is composed of six anecdotes with from six to nine triple-choice responses on each; Part Three consists of a five-minute dialogue between a man and a woman speaker, with fifteen triple-choice responses on its content.

Oral Production.—Individual tests of oral production are now in the process of being constructed by the Investigation. These tests will be available for general use by April, 1946. They will be on two levels, and will feature (1) oral response to pictorial stimuli, and (2) controlled conversation with a native speaker through the use of phonograph records.

The Investigation is interested in establishing norms for these various tests. It will therefore welcome their use in any language-course, whether of an experimental character or not, in either secondary school or college, by any teacher who is interested to test the oral-aural attainments of his students. There is no charge for these tests; the Investigation will pay all expenses connected with shipping the materials, and will itself do all scoring and statistical analysis, with the understanding that it may utilize the results in its establishment of norms.

Orders for testing materials should be placed, at least two weeks in advance of the testing date, with the Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language, 5835 Kimbark Ave., Chicago 37, Illinois.

COLOR SLIDES ON THE OTHER AMERICAN REPUBLICS

The American Council on Education, through the cooperation of the Office of Inter-American Affairs has recently completed assembling thirty-three teaching units of 2×2 color slides dealing with the other American republics. The project was directed by Florence Arquin.

The assembling of these units was made possible by the interest and generous cooperation of the Brooklyn Museum, Chicago Museum of Natural History, Press Division of the Office of Inter-American Affairs, Museum of Modern Art, Art Department of the University of Texas, Pan American Airways, Taca Airways, and leading photographers including Florence Arquin and Julien Bryan.

Complete files of the thirty-three units listed below, together with teachers' notes, have been placed on deposit for loan distribution with the following institutions:

The Southern California Council of Inter-American Affairs, 707 Auditorium Building, Fifth and Olive Streets, Los Angeles 13, California

The Rocky Mountain Council on Inter-American Affairs, 1425 Cleveland Place, Denver, Colorado

Division of Inter-American Educational Relations, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C.

Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago 3, Illinois

Extension Division, The State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

The Pan American Society of Massachusetts and Northern New England, Inc., 75 Newbury Street, Boston 16, Massachusetts

The Southern Council on International Relations, Box 1050, Chapel Hill, North Carolina

Portland Extension Center, Oregon State System of Higher Education, Portland, Oregon

Division of Education, Philadelphia Museum of Art, Parkway at 26th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pennsylvania

Institute of Latin American Studies, The University of Texas, Austin 12, Texas

For complete information concerning availability and service charges write directly to the nearest depository.

The slide units are also available for *purchase* from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C. *Prepaid orders* sent to the Council prior to September 15, 1945 will be filled on or about January 1, 1946. Orders received after September 15 will be filled on or about June 1, 1946. Prices of individual units are indicated after each title. A special price of \$700.00 is offered on purchase of the complete set of 33 units. Notes for teachers, including ample background material, are supplied with each unit.

<i>Slide Sequences</i>	<i>Total Slides</i>	<i>Price</i>
1. Hunting Unusual Plants in Guatemala	49	\$24.50
2. Guatemala	81	40.50
3. Cartagena	33	16.50
4. Brazil Builds	46	23.00
5. Native Markets of Latin America	52	26.00
6. Rubber in the Amazon Basin	26	13.00
7. Native Life in an Amazon Village	33	16.50
8. Housing in Latin America	56	28.00
9. Mexican Churches (Colonial)	83	41.50
10. Colonial Painting in Mexico	26	13.00
11. Contemporary Mexican Painting	82	41.00
12. Contemporary Mexican Murals	71	35.50
13. Popular Arts in Mexico	37	18.50
14. South America—The Land	86	43.00
15. Agriculture in South America	91	45.50
16. Mining in South America	48	24.00
17. Transportation in Latin America	79	39.50
18. Weaving in the South American Highlands	41	20.50
19. Bolivian Highland Costumes	47	23.50
20. Indian Costumes in Latin America	52	26.00
21. Indian Life in the Lowlands of South America	22	11.00
22. Indian Life in the Highlands of South America	49	24.50

Pre-Conquest Civilizations in Latin America

<i>Valley of Mexico</i>	(107)	(53.50)
23. Middle Culture	14	7.00
24. Teotihuacan	16	8.00
25. Tula—Toltec	37	18.50
26. Aztec	40	20.00
<i>Western Mexico</i>	(37)	(18.50)
27. Tarascan	37	18.50
<i>Southeastern Mexico</i>	(62)	(31.00)
28. Monte Alban and Mitla	37	18.50
29. Totonac	25	12.50
<i>Maya First Empire—Honduras</i>	(24)	(12.00)
30. Copan	24	12.00
<i>Maya Second Empire—Yucatan</i>	(73)	(36.50)
31. Chichen Itza	44	22.00
32. Uxmal	29	14.50
33. Inca Culture in Peru	33	16.50
Total	1,526	\$763.00

FOREIGN LANGUAGE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE A.B. DEGREE IN THE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES OF IOWA

The charge has often been made, probably with considerable justification, that the colleges and universities have not sufficiently cooperated with the secondary schools. One way in which the colleges and universities can be of service to the secondary school administrators of Iowa is by making certain types of information more readily available. It is our hope that this bulletin, a codification of foreign language requirements in Iowa colleges and universities, may facilitate the task of the advisors of high school students who plan to go to college.

The great majority of the liberal arts colleges require two years of work, or the equivalent, in one foreign language for the A.B. degree and many require the same preparation for the B.S. The language requirements for graduation in Iowa colleges and universities as well as comments by administrators are given below. Before presenting these, however, we wish to submit the following observations:

A. Advantages of Beginning Study of Language in High School

A student who enters college with two years of a foreign language to his credit can normally complete his requirement in one year. Thus the student will have six or eight additional semester hours to devote to his field of concentration, to electives, or to a third year of language before he begins to specialize in his Junior year. Moreover, the foreign language training in high school will contribute towards the attainment of the college English proficiency requirement.

B. Choice of a Language

Whenever possible it is desirable that the student have the choice of more than one language. For example, a person who plans to major in Political Science may need French; in Commerce, Spanish; in Chemistry, German; in Botany, Latin; etc. The language recommended to support various fields of concentration differs from department to department; for this reason, the professional and cultural interests of students are best served when a choice of foreign languages is available.

In most instances, the foreign language teacher knows two languages. For example, it

might be possible to offer beginning French and Spanish in alternate years where the demand is not sufficiently great to provide both concurrently.

C. Who Should Study Foreign Languages?

Should competent students, even if they do not plan to attend college, be required to study a foreign language? Those who maintain that they should, present among others the following reasons:

- (1) Because of the contribution a foreign language makes to proficiency in English.
- (2) Because of the leadership the United States will probably assume in world affairs, and because our effective participation will require a more world-minded citizenry.
- (3) Because many students who originally do not plan or prepare to attend college do so later on.
- (4) Because the exacting and disciplinary nature of language (and mathematics) imposes awareness of and skill in the precise manipulation of symbols.

D. Linguistic Background of 578 Freshmen Who Enrolled in Coe, Cornell, and Grinnell in the Fall of 1944

Of the 578 freshmen records examined 117 had had no foreign language in high school and 87 presented but one unit. Inasmuch as the latter were not prepared to enter the second year, most of them found it advisable either to begin the language anew, often with loss of credit for the first quarter or semester, or to start a new language. One hundred and thirty-five (135) presented two years of Latin, taken for the most part during the first two years of high school, and the great majority of these chose to elect a modern language. A considerable number of those presenting two units of a modern language had studied the language during the first two years of high school. They scored so low on the placement tests that they were advised to begin a new language. Of those students who had had three or more years of a language in high school, many passed the placement test and met the language proficiency requirement as entering freshmen.

This analysis would seem to suggest that in those schools where but two years of a single foreign language are taught, it would be wise to postpone the study of a language until the junior and senior years. Obviously, however, two years of Latin followed by two years of a modern language provide an excellent linguistic background where it is not possible to offer more than two years in any one language. While one year of a foreign language is better than none, it is evident that the best interests of students are served if they are required to continue the same language for two years at least.

A. The following Liberal Arts Colleges require two years (12-16 semester hours) of a foreign language or the equivalent. Two years in high school are normally considered the equivalent of one year in college.

College	Semester hours required if student has minimum of two years of high school language	Semester hours required if student has no foreign language in high school
Briar Cliff College	6	12
Central College	6	12
Clarke College	6	12
Coe College	6	14
Cornell College	8	16
Grinnell College	8	16
Kletzing College	6	12
Loras College	6	14

<i>College</i>	<i>Semester hours required if student has mini- mum of two years of high school language</i>	<i>Semester hours required if student has no foreign language in high school</i>
Luther College	6	14
Morningside College	6	12
Parsons College	6	12
St. Ambrose College and Mary Crest College	6	12
University of Dubuque	6	12
Wartburg College	6	12
William Penn College	6	14

B. The following universities have the language requirement listed below:

<i>University</i>	<i>Semester hours required if student has mini- mum of two years of high school language</i>	<i>Semester hours required if student has no foreign language in high school</i>
Drake University	None	8
The State University of Iowa	None (if student passes proficiency test)	8

C. The following institutions have no general foreign language requirement for the A.B. degree at present, but many of their individual departments have a foreign language requirement. Some of these schools indicate that the position of foreign languages in their curriculum is being reconsidered and that the language requirement may be reintroduced: Buena Vista College, Iowa State College, Iowa State Teachers College, Iowa Wesleyan College, Simpson College, Upper Iowa University, Western Union College.

BOYD G. CARTER, Coe College
HAROLD L. CLAPP, Grinnell College
JESS WAGUS, Cornell College
—Committee

UNIVERSITY OF HAVANA SUMMER SCHOOL TUITION SCHOLARSHIPS AWARDED

The fifth session of the University of Havana Summer School was held from July 9 to August 18. Ten United States students studied there this summer on scholarships awarded by the Institute of International Education, of which Dr. Stephen Duggan is the Director. This summer about one thousand students, including more than 200 North Americans, attended the courses. The University, which is one of the oldest and largest in the Western Hemisphere offered a unique opportunity to study in a typical Latin American country without traveling a long distance. The tuition scholarships were offered by the University of Havana Summer School and administered by the Institute of International Education.

Following is a list of the ten appointments made for the 1945 Summer School Session:

Margaret Louise Buchner, Baltimore, Maryland; Instructor in Spanish, University of Rochester; B.S., Ph.D., Johns Hopkins University.

Florence Esther Doushness, Brooklyn, New York; Teacher of English and Spanish, Girls Commercial High School, Brooklyn, New York; B.A. Adelphi College; M.A. New York University.

Louise Galst, Chicago, Illinois; Teacher of Spanish, William A. Wirt School, Gary, Indiana; B.A., M.A. University of Chicago.

Paulene Hadaway, Greenville, South Carolina; Instructor in German and Spanish, Rollins College; B.A. University of Georgia; M.A. University of Wisconsin.

Susan Isaacs, Elizabeth, New Jersey; Graduate Student; A.B. New Jersey College for Women; University of Havana 1944-45.

Doris Shirley Kaplan, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; B.A. University of Pennsylvania.

Vivian Alice Kle, Chicago, Illinois; Substitute teacher in Chicago public high schools; A.B., M.A. University of Chicago.

Carolyn Cumming Michel, Augusta, Georgia, B.A. Randolph-Macon Woman's College.

Esther Elsie Shuler, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Teaching Assistant in Spanish, University of Minnesota; B.A., M.A. University of Minnesota.

Margaret M. Walsh, New York, New York; Teacher of Spanish, William C. Bryant High School, New York; B.A. Hunter College; M.A. Columbia University.

UNRRA

EDITOR'S NOTE: We are pleased to publish the following information concerning the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. The work of this organization ought to be of interest to our teachers and students of foreign languages and foreign areas.

UNRRA: Organization, Aims and Progress (Revised June 1945)—a 34-page pamphlet, including charts, list of recommended readings, and list of films on UNRRA subjects. Gives a comprehensive description of the scope and functions of UNRRA; its background and organization; principal fields of operations—food, clothing, health, displaced persons, welfare, agricultural and industrial rehabilitation; procedure in determining needs and procuring supplies, etc. For use by teachers, professors, speakers, social workers, discussion leaders, students of international relations. *Free*.

Out of the Chaos—a shorter description of UNRRA's organization and operations, illustrated. Written in popular style, for general use. 18 p. *Free*. Copies are available in bulk, for distribution to groups.

UNRRA in Outline—a 4-fold leaflet, giving brief answers to the questions: What is UNRRA? What help does UNRRA provide? How is UNRRA financed? How big is UNRRA's task? How was UNRRA organized? Special emphasis on what UNRRA has been doing. A section on "UNRRA up to date" is reprinted at frequent intervals. Suitable for distribution at meetings, for posting on bulletin boards, and for those desiring a comprehensive picture in short form. *Free*. Copies are available in bulk, for distribution to groups.

UNRRA Monthly Review—a multilithed publication, appearing about the 20th of each month, covering events of the preceding month. Contains information about current operations, quotations from speeches by UNRRA officials, reports from overseas, references to pamphlet and periodical materials about UNRRA, and other news items. *Subscription free*.

What UNRRA is and is Not—small leaflet. A pointed statement, attempting to correct some misconceptions as to what UNRRA is authorized to do, and what it is not responsible for. *Free*.

Speaker's Kit—a collection of the above materials, a few reprints of speeches, some useful quotations, etc., together with three outlines for use in connection with making speeches. *Free to speakers*.

Exhibit—mounted photographs showing UNRRA's activities, titled "UNRRA—World Friendship in Action." The exhibit is mounted on three hinged wooden panels; central panel is 30"×54", side panels 30"×48". Available on loan for conferences and for display in important centers. For information write Chief of Groups Liaison, Office of Public Information, UNRRA, Washington, D. C.

In the Wake of the Armies—a collection of items gathered from the letters, diaries, cables and reports written by UNRRA overseas personnel, issued monthly. Prepared especially for use of writers, producers, story editors. *Free*.

Correspondence

AN OPEN LETTER TO PUBLISHERS AND CURRICULUM MAKERS

Throughout the years the publishing craft has shown itself consistently responsive to the trends of evolving pedagogical thinking. Such landmarks as the report of the Committee of Twelve in 1898, the reports of the Modern Foreign Language Study of the late twenties and those on the intensive courses and the Army Special Training Program of the present have been reflected in types of text materials indicated as desirable in these reports. In this letter I should like to direct your attention to a type of text characteristic of the late thirties and early forties—to the two-volume series designed to furnish a complete two-year course in French, German, Spanish or Italian and to the one-volume omnibus text aimed at the same objective.

This type of text represents a response to the implications of the Classical Investigation and the Modern Foreign Language Study that, because 85% of the secondary school population dropped the study of a foreign language at the end of two years, the two-year course would be assumed to be the standard. To be sure, a longer course was hoped for and gratefully acclaimed whenever it did materialize, but on the whole the attitude was defeatist. Fortunately two factors are now operating to bring about a more generally constructive point of view. The success of the intensive courses and those of the ASTP in proving that usable language skills can be developed, given adequate learning conditions, has demonstrated the need under ordinary school conditions for a longer period of language study. The emphasis of the Good Neighbor Policy on the value of a knowledge of Spanish has caused that language to take the lead in meeting the demand for an earlier beginning of foreign language study, the study of Spanish being begun in the grades, and in some instances with the kindergarten, in the border states of the southwest and in Florida.

Previous comparison of language attainments in European countries with those in the United States—to the discredit of the latter—have been based upon entirely unequal premises. The study of the first foreign language in Europe began generally at the age of ten and continued for a minimum of six and a maximum of nine years in the secondary school, and the results from courses of this length were being compared with those obtained after two years of high school study in this country. Authoritative voices are now being raised on every hand to proclaim the linguistic competence of American students who are given comparable opportunities for language study.

Even if we still accepted the two-year course as standard, I would, nevertheless, raise my voice in protest against the two-volume text and even more so against the omnibus text in one volume. In the hands of the skilled teacher any good text can be used *selectively* to teach the grammar points needed in the second year. With the large number of teachers who must "follow the book" this type of text makes of the second year the weakest link in the whole language course in that it presupposes that we must "cover the grammar" at any cost, and that cost is usually an inadequate reading program.

It is my firm conviction that the second year, whether terminal or part of a continuing experience, should be, as has been the second Latin year, a *reading* course, with *all necessary* grammar taught functionally *after* it has been encountered in *use* in a meaningful context. And by "reading" I would mean the intensive treatment of interesting books of narrative or dramatic content with constant oral use of the vocabulary and idiom of reading assignments in conversation about and discussion of the story or dramatic situations. This intensive method results in making both the content and language forms the student's own at the second-year level.

But there are certain grammatical constructions which would have unnecessarily complicated the learning process in the first year and so are wisely postponed until a latter time. Many of these must be learned in the second year if the student is to make appropriate progress in his knowledge and use of language. To take care of these and at the same time to provide necessary review of constructions learned the previous year I would suggest the concise review grammar, any topic of which can be studied *as needed*, with no implication that the material of the book should be covered in the order given or with the same completeness. Unlike most review grammars now on the market I should like to see the exercises calling for translation from English into the foreign language greatly curtailed or eliminated altogether. If the purpose of language teaching is to help students to think and express themselves naturally in the foreign language all use of English must be limited to an irreducible minimum. Kaulfers says, "Translation from English into a foreign language . . . is a highly technical exercise in two languages, requiring specialized training at the upper division college and graduate-school levels."¹ To the teacher such translation seems simple. To the student even the simple sentences involve such a number of unknown quantities that make for potential errors, that they should be avoided at the second-year level. Instead I would wish the text to have a wealth of modern-type exercises for each construction treated, all providing for drills *in sentence form*, with each individual exercise possessing continuity of thought and using a vocabulary (given as a word list) dealing with one single topic of adolescent interest. The teacher could then use the exercises with this vocabulary or could substitute for it the vocabulary of a given portion of the reading text, if she so desired. The exercises themselves would call for mutations of forms, the supplying of missing forms, the matching of parts, multiple choice, etc., all types of drill which require thinking in the language itself.

One of the strongest objections to the two-volume text, and especially to the omnibus text, lies in the bad psychology of chilling the enthusiasm of students as they set out on the high adventure of a brand new year by putting into their hands the "same old" text with which they have lived and struggled for 180 days of the year before. And even though the second book of the two-volume series may have "changed its spots" as to the outside cover, it still remains the work of "the same old" author or group of authors. With all the wealth of reading material which could be made available to second-year students is it fair to limit their two-year experience with any one language to the vocabulary and style of just one author (or group of collaborators)?

¹ Walter Vincent Kaulfers: *Modern Languages for Modern Schools*, McGraw-Hill Co. Inc. 1942, page 101.

Furthermore, in most large school systems the personnel of the second-year class is often quite changed from that of its predecessor. In addition to the students trained by the same teacher or even those trained by other teachers in the same school system there are apt to be new entries from such sources as private and parochial schools, small-town and consolidated county high schools, other big cities and even other countries, all of whom have been trained by different methods and have used books of different vocabulary content—and that in spite of word lists! To continue the use of the same text as that of the first year may mean discouragement to new students in the feeling that the original members of the class have an advantage over them in the matter of vocabulary. This is particularly the case when teachers start the new year with a hasty review of the first book, which is, of course, no review at all for the others. The acquisition of new vocabulary, as well as the retention of old, is a *sine qua non* of the development of the reading skill. To put all students on an equal footing by starting the second year with a text new to *all* members of a class removes the danger of discouragement for newcomers and whets the appetites of the “old-timers.” It is a really democratic approach.

I am convinced that the author who has worked for years with beginning language classes pours into a first-year text all the rich fund of ideas and devices which he has built up through long experience in guiding adolescent boys and girls along the path of language learning. My own credo with regard to such a beginning text was outlined in an article appearing some years ago in the *Modern Language Journal*² and was quoted at some length in a standard work on modern language teaching.³ On the other hand more than one author has told me that the second book was written at the request of the publisher, who felt that he was obligated to present a complete two-year course in textbook form. One publisher was even heard to admit that “After all, a second book is—just a second book!” The student who has been given a good beginning course with one of the splendid types of modern first-year texts now available for the commonly studied languages should be well equipped to tackle a good reading course in the second year and, with the aid of such a review grammar as is outlined above, to master any points of grammar which are not taught in the first year but which are essential to his language progress at this level.

In our American elective system it frequently happens that a candidate for graduation asks in his senior year to take only one year of a language to be continued in college (often for him a second or third language) in order to have the benefit of the aural-oral approach which has hitherto been so sadly lacking in many college language courses. Sometimes there are other students who for one reason or another take only one year of a language and still receive credit towards graduation. Each year of language study should be a complete unit, with surrender value in itself, although each year of a continuing course should form an adequate basis for the next year's more advanced study. And at the start of each new year of work the student should have the psychological advantage of a completely fresh approach and the stimulus of an entirely new content interest. It is, therefore, my

² The Selection of High School Texts in the Modern Languages, Emilie Margaret White, *Modern Language Journal*, XIX, pp. 481-488.

³ The Teaching of Modern Languages, Cole and Tharp, D. Appleton Century Company, 1937, pp. 313-316.

earnest plea to publishers that they permit an author to put his best thinking, enthusiasm and experience into the writing of a text limited to the requirements of a first-year language course, without necessarily demanding a second book to follow it. And to the makers of high school curricula I would address a similar plea that they be willing to adopt for first-year classes a text suited to their needs without regard to whether the second volume meets their second-year needs or whether a second-year volume exists at all. Nothing will contribute more to the building up of advanced classes in foreign languages in our schools than well organized, fresh reading courses in the second year.

EMILIE MARGARET WHITE

*Head of the Department of Foreign Languages,
Public Schools of the District of Columbia, Divisions 1-9*

July 10, 1945

DEAR SIR:

In your issue of April 1945, vol. 29, you published a note by Robert Hall, entitled *Some Desiderata for Elementary Language Texts*. In that note he makes several points which I find rather useless and commonplace: whoever doubts the *Realization that Language is Speech, not Writing?* Or the *Disregard or Relegation to Secondary Position of Mere Orthographical Varieties?* Or that we should adopt *The Simplest and Most Accurate Formulation of Facts*, and the like? As for some other recommendations for the *practical* teaching of modern languages for *practical* purposes, I would simply remark that Mr. Hall seems unaware of the fact that such a system is quite well-known and has been widely used, at least in Europe, since I was a baby (and that is rather a long time ago); it is the so-called *Berlitz* method which has given, *for its purposes*, excellent results. It is very good to enable a man to buy coffee in Brazil or order a beer in Paris, and that is what it is made for; I like it because it is honest, and makes no claim to train people in the humanities or on the University level, improve their minds or their taste, introduce them to different complex and delicate cultures. Whether we should or should not adopt it in Universities depends on what we conceive a University should be.

There is one point, however, on which I disagree with Mr. Hall not on *method* but on facts. On p. 291, n. 7 he writes that "French [e] and [ɛ] are simply positional variants of the same phoneme, which we may denote by the symbol *e* in phonemic transcription."¹ I personally believe that in this country the *phonemic* system has been pushed a little too far both in theory and in practice; but even if we accept it, the assertion of Mr. Hall seems strange to me. The only sure thing about *phonemes* is that they have a *semantic* value, that they have the capacity to *distinguish* one word from another, that they appeal to our *linguistic consciousness* (and, incidentally, I do not see how a follower of Bloomfield's mechanistic doctrines can speak about them); so nobody doubts that in standard Italian [e] and [ɛ] are different *phonemes*, since they enable Italians to distinguish *semantically* such words as *pescò* and *pESCO*, *affetto* and *affELLO*, and several others. Now, this is also exactly the case in French, according e.g. to the best authority

¹ This idea he has also unfortunately brought into practice in his book *Spoken French* (by Hall and Denoeu); the same must be said of *ô* and *ö* a phonemic distinction which they have likewise overlooked, and which also exists in French (cf. Gougenheim, p. 821: *jeune:jeûne*).

on French phonemics, Professor Gougenheim. In his manual *Eléments de phonologie française*, (Strasbourg 1935, p. 21), he establishes a "correlation" between *è* and *é* and gives a few examples, such as: *daie:dé; fait:fée; grès:gré; guet:gué; laide, lai, laie:les; près, prêt:pré; taie, tait:thé, épais épée, poignet:poignée*; which establish, in my opinion, in a very clear way that such an opposition exists in French as well as in Italian. In Spanish, on the contrary, it is merely *phonetic*.

I will be grateful to you for the publication of this letter in your *Journal*.

Yours very truly,

G. BONFANTE

Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.

• Reviews •

FRASER, W. H. and SQUAIR, J., *Elementary French Grammar*. Revised by Parker, Clifford S. D. C. Heath, Boston, 1942. Price \$1.88.

The appearance of another revised edition of Fraser and Squair's Grammar is evidence again of a general confidence in its basic soundness. The original work (1901) continues to hold high place on the list of authoritative grammars; and the fundamentals of this edition, re-organized, and developed by means of a lively and up-to-date vocabulary, make of it a surprisingly good beginning book for the student of 1945.

The book is attractive in appearance, the binding firm, the print clear; not the least of its good qualities are the numerous excellent photographs of scenes from French life which in themselves should make the student prize the book.

As Mr. Parker tells us in the preface, he has retained practically all the rules of the original work. In some instances he has clarified their wording and he has altered the order in which they are introduced, "in the interests of a more logical development of grammar." In place of the rather technical and detailed treatment of pronunciation of the original book, he has substituted a more simple explanation, at the same time retaining the phonetic symbols "which have been carefully checked with those given in the most authoritative works on French pronunciation." If the user feels the need of the more detailed treatment of the original text, he has only to refer to the appendix where it has been preserved.

The material of the book has been divided into forty lessons. After every ten lessons there is a review, and, for good measure, a practice test with weighted questions. Some teachers object to the idea of including a test in the text, but surely it can do no harm; on the contrary, it is quite likely to be suggestive to the teacher and helpful to the student. The lessons all follow the same pattern: an exercise on pronunciation, statement of grammatical rules with ample illustrations, "observations" on these rules (which should do much to simplify them for the student), completion and mutation exercises, passages to be translated from French to English and from English to French, and a passage of supplementary reading material. The exercises of each lesson are all new; the vocabulary is "carefully controlled, consisting largely of high-frequency words from Tharp's *Basic French Vocabulary* with especial emphasis on cognates." The supplementary reading deals with interesting and informative material on French geography and history.

If I were to offer an adverse criticism of the book, it would be a minor one: most of the lessons deal with too many grammatical points. The teacher would have to supplement the rather goodly number of exercises with others of her own in order that the average student

might digest the dose, a procedure which we have to follow in using many texts. On the whole, this revised edition reminds us that new wine in old bottles can be very palatable.

MYRTLE WINDSOR

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DAUDON, RENÉ, *French in Review*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1945. 267 pages. \$1.60.

There are many good books for reviewing French. This new one is certainly one of them, not only because it repeats in a pleasant manner what good can be found in the other books, but also because it carries its own valuable features. First of all it is a concise and well-arranged book. Each of the 16 chapters of its 221 pages (267 pages with appendix and vocabulary) is divided into three clearly distinct parts. The first section of each lesson deals with "Grammar and Usage." Thus the author does not follow the old pattern in developing his material according to well-known categories: the attempt is made—and successfully, we believe—to introduce the essentials of most frequent use earlier in the text. These essentials are not always the usual first-lesson problems, say, of the article (which comes up here only in lesson three, while lesson 1 deals with the use of the Present Indicative, the use of *qui* and *que*, with one use of the Subjunctive, the Imperative, and the Genitive Case). There is also a definite emphasis (beginning with lesson 1 and continued through the book until the recapitulation in lessons 13 and 14) of the use of the Subjunctive, neglected in many books of this kind or postponed until the final lessons. This emphasis is given with purpose, since according to Daudon "this mood is neither unusual nor so difficult in French as the American student is led to believe."

The distinctive contribution in this review grammar is the persistent inclusion in each lesson of a second section entitled "Vocabulary Distinction," a contribution which is, of course, not new in itself. This part intends to give the student a safe knowledge not only of the differences between *temps*, *heure*, and *fois*, between *seulement* and *ne . . . que . . .*, between *retourner*, *revenir*, *rentrer*, *rendre* (to return), but also of most of the slight shades in meaning and value of expressions which are problems for our students whenever they have to speak French or to translate English into French. This section, furthermore, is accompanied by a clear reference-chart on the inside of the cover ("the most frequent sources of error in usage") so that the solution of the problem can easily be located.

The third part of each lesson consists in a summarized tabloid version of Bazin's *Les Oberlé* (18 pages in all), plus exercises as in the other parts, and 14 pages of "supplementary compositions" in English based on the same Bazin text. It is the least convincing and original contribution of the book.

In short, this *French in Review* with its modest title is a very efficient book for advanced students. It is so well arranged that teachers emphasizing for instance translations as a means to their aim, or vocabulary distinction, or functional grammar, may easily take their choice and emphasize or omit one of the three sections that run parallel to each other, or teach all of them.

FREDERICK LEHNER

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GUTHRIE, RAMON and DILLER, GEORGE E., *French Literature and Thought Since the Revolution*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1942. xi, 604 pp. Price \$2.90.

Quotable lines from the selections in this excellent and timely anthology could well compose the entire review of it. "Manier savamment une langue c'est pratiquer une espèce de sorcellerie évocatoire," spoken by Baudelaire, must have been uppermost in the minds of the editors as they made final choices and wrote the brief introductory notes which, helpful to a

high degree to the reader and revealing the authors' enthusiasm which can not help being contagious, do not preclude the reader's privilege of feeling with André Gide "qu'il est bon de laisser chaque esprit libre d'interpréter à sa façon les grands textes." Their answer to Victor Hugo's question, "As-tu donc oublié que ton libérateur, c'est le livre?" could be in Renan's words: "Le but du monde est le développement de l'esprit, et la première condition du développement de l'esprit, c'est la liberté." The authors, endeavoring to meet the needs of "a large survey course for freshmen with three years of high school French, a nineteenth-century course for more advanced students, and a course in the twentieth century and its background designed for upper classmen of outstanding ability," are challenging the better students to a keener appreciation of the beauty of the French language and to a deeper understanding of "the social significance of the nineteenth-century French literature, the great writers of which period were with few exceptions intimately concerned with social progress and liberty and justice." "La moisson est-elle moins belle parce qu'elle a mûri sur un volcan?" asked Hugo.

Since the nineteenth century is a century of poetry, more than half of the 251 selections are poems. All of the selections and their 48 authors—both the usual major and many minor—have been chosen for the very great influence that they have exerted and continue to exert upon the thought and actions of the modern world, including of course American and English writers. The number of divisions of the anthology is seven, three being assigned to Romanticism, two to the scientific awakening ending with Parnassian poetry, and one each to Naturalism and Symbolism and to the modern movement. The selections and authors are sufficiently varied and numerous to permit the teacher much liberty in planning his course. One is frequently aware of the correlation with many other school subjects; concrete evidence of this correlation is seen in the many reproductions of paintings.

The book contains a few errors, involving one letter or a mark of punctuation. The correct reading should be: line 61, page 45, comma for period; line 94, page 56, *son* for *sont*; line 12, page 147, *ne* for *se*; line 38, page 153, period for comma; note 4, page 194, *reenforcements* for *renforcements* (twice); line 6, page 356, *la phrase* for *le phrase*; line 17, page 395, *tous* for *tout*; line 30, page 411, *lâches* for *lâche*; line 7, page 446, *eut* for *eu*; and line 23, page 572, *contredisant* for *contradisant*.

The anthology is easy on the eye, with its beauty of expression and well-spaced lines that invite thoughtful and leisurely reading; to the mind it is helpful and stimulating. There will be many readers to join me in congratulating the authors in the words of Renan: "Les vrais hommes de progrès sont ceux qui ont pour point de départ un respect profond du passé."

C. D. MOREHEAD

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FEUILLERAT, ALBERT, *Baudelaire et sa mère*. Editions Variétés, Montréal, 1944, 226 pages.

Albert Feuillerat, in *Baudelaire et sa mère*, has produced a serious biographical study as entertaining as a novel. The student of Baudelaire will be pleased to find, in this compact form, information gleaned from many widely scattered collections of letters. The casual reader will like the light, easy style of the book and an analysis of emotions similar to that of the popular "vie romancée."

Certainly the principal feminine character of the book is fitted to be the heroine of a novel. Her husband said of her: "La grâce de son esprit, unie à l'aménité de ses manières, . . . donnait à son salon un charme que chacun se plaisait à reconnaître," and the poet Banville called her "infiniment distinguée et d'une nature exquise." Moreover her capacity for affection was great, her generosity most touching, though she had sultry moments of suspicion and anger which make fine passages of suspense in the course of her story.

Caroline Archimbaut-Dufays was the daughter of an army officer, and she grew up in the home of a wealthy Parisian lawyer. Both in her first marriage to the poet's father, and in her

second marriage to General Aupick, she was called on to fill an important position in official society. She created a beautiful home over which she presided very gracefully. Yet for all her sophistication she was of a childish simplicity in matters of law and business. She was horrified but bewildered by the disorder in her son's personal affairs. Her pathetic and ineffectual attempts to hide the poet's shortcomings, to protect him from the consequences of his own folly, indicate the intensely feminine nature of this proud and reserved woman.

Madame Aupick's maternal love seems sometimes to be greater than her common sense, but it is certainly easy to pardon the mother of a great poet for errors which are the result of a great tenderness. Baudelaire obviously respected her judgment, even when he was unable or unwilling to follow it.

This book is not only a careful study, through letters and documents, of the character of Madame Aupick; it is also a detailed exposition of many phases of Baudelaire's private life. Small domestic incidents which reveal the poet's personality and illuminate his verses are here related and analyzed. The author has made some good observations of Baudelaire's curious mental processes, such as this one:

"Les tripotages d'argent font tellement partie de sa manière d'être qu'il est arrivé à considérer les équivoques combinaisons auxquelles il a recours comme les incidents normaux de toute existence."

As a study of two people who loved one another but could not get along together, *Baudelaire et sa mère* is very satisfying. The book does not try to explain the poetic genius of Baudelaire. Indeed, unless one approach this volume soon after reading *Les Fleurs du mal*, there is danger of finishing it with a strange impression of the poet. Feuillerat's picture of an ill-tempered, petty, self-centered little man does not suggest the visions of beauty, the mental power which could produce *Le Voyage* or *Harmonies du soir*. One needs to re-read certain poems immediately for reassurance about this man who created so much misery around him.

The fact that a poet is a good or bad son, a scrupulous or careless handler of money, does not alter the world's judgment of his permanent contribution to its beauty. That is why *Baudelaire et sa mère* is far from being a complete or definitive study of Baudelaire. It may serve, perhaps, as documentation for a single chapter in a great work to be written some day. Of itself, it is not a masterpiece; it is an attractive novelty, a curious bit of baudelaireana, a well-documented and well-written study of a very limited subject.

FRANCES NOBLE

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TATUM, TERRELL LOUISE, *Pan American Business Spanish*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1945. Illustrated. Price \$2.50.

Teachers of commercial Spanish will find Miss Tatum's text an efficient tool for their classes. The business letters are authentic, they are grouped in categories for convenience of consultation, and the exercises on them are varied and adequate. The text has a number of unusual features. Preceding the business correspondence, two sections in English offer a succinct review of a number of the major factors of Latin American life and economy: the most important ethnic and topographic phenomena, the systems of transportation, of agriculture, mining and industry. A *selected bibliography* of five pages offers a wealth of material from which the student may draw further information. An unusually complete *Appendix* has tables of weights and measures, the Spanish numerals, temperatures, a list of the more common Spanish names, and a compilation of the commercial abbreviations used in business correspondence. *Vocabularies* and an *Index* complete the volume.

When a new printing is contemplated, a number of revisions will improve the text. *In*, should read *In-* 22, 10 (numerals refer to page and line); *Q* 122, 11 apparently should read *\$*; the bracket following *FACTURA* 137, 1 should be removed; *plazas* 151, 31 should be *plazos*; *are* 203, 25 is *area*; *neto* 209, 12 should read *neto(-a, -os, -as)*. In the vocabulary, *Reserves* 184, 19

is lacking; *fecha factura* 107, 24 is not listed except as *fecha de la factura, por tanto* 114, 19 as *por lo tanto* and *giro vista* 149, 34 as *giro a la vista*; *entidades* 107, 17, *via aérea* 107, 30, and *decaídas* 150, 14 lack accurate meanings; *tueste* 145, 9 is better as "roasting" than as "toasting." The following items need clarifying notes or vocabulary entries in addition to or replacing those already provided: *formuladramos* 117, 10, *con carácter devolutivo* 119, 26, *como este caso* 123, 15, *ante la fe* 127, 18. In the Abbreviations, *Inc.* does not explain *INC.* of 122, 18; *Est.* misinterprets the term on 136, 14 and 15 (here, it means *estimación*); *A.C.* is not the *A.C.* of 137, 19; there is no entry for *Incl.* of 136, 28 *et passim*; for *crtte.* 162, 22, *Coah.* 175, 2, *caf.* 180, 14. The author assumes the student's familiarity with common English abbreviations like *enc.* and *C.O.D.*, the signs $\#$ and \bullet . There is perhaps no need to explain the abbreviations heading the cables and telegrams (pages 131-133).

The above errors and omissions are too few to detract from the text's usefulness; the volume is easily the most satisfactory of its kind yet to appear.

GERALD E. WADE

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SPELL, JEFFERSON REA, *Contemporary Spanish-American Fiction*. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press. 1944. 323 pp. Price \$3.00.

In his very timely book, *Contemporary Spanish-American Fiction*, Dr. Spell has elected to devote his attention to ten writers whose works are characterized by their fine quality. They are at the same time representative geographically of Spanish America as a whole. They are: Manuel Gálvez, picturing city life in the Argentine; Mariano Azuela, portrayer of the Mexican Revolution; Carlos Loveira, advocate of a new morality for Cuba; Eduardo Barrios, psychological novelist of Chile; Horacio Quiroga, renowned short-story writer of Uruguay; José Eustacio Rivera, revealing the secrets of the *selvas* of Colombia; Ricardo Güiraldes, stylistic depicter of the *gaucho*; Rómulo Gallegos, interpreter of the *llanos* of Venezuela; Jorge Icaza, defender of the Ecuadorian Indian; and Ciro Alegría, *criollista* of Peru.

The typography of the book is excellent. The occasional error in the body of the text is usually in a proper name, and with few exceptions this error is corrected in the index. In referring to the Argentine writer Cambaceres, the author uses a French accentuation (Cambacérés) which he might have explained in a footnote. He has explained it to the reviewer, saying that through the years the family has put up a steadfast resistance to the loss of the French form of the name, although it is apparent from other writers that few will regard the word as anything but Spanish, that is, the accents will continue to be considered superfluous.

The reader or student without full library facilities, or without a complete grasp of the field of contemporary Spanish-American fiction, will appreciate the author's parenthetical translation of the titles of the novels presented in this study. This may be unnecessary to those who are already conversant with the authors and their works, but for others this translation will be a noteworthy feature. "Los perseguidos" is normally understood as "the pursued," but when we find it translated as "The Haunted Ones," then we have a more graphic idea of how the individuals in the story are being pursued. Only through this medium can the lay reader come to a proper grasp of the meaning of the titles under discussion, and it is to be remembered that there should be a wide circulation of this book in libraries and literary circles where a knowledge of Spanish is the exception and not the rule.

ROBERT STANLEY WHITEHOUSE

University of Miami
Coral Gables, Florida

CAPOCELLI, GINEVRA, *L'Italia nel passato a nel presente*. New York: Henry Holt & Company, 1945. Pp. 395.

The aim of this book, as set forth by its author, is "to offer to the student of the Italian language an interesting and enjoyable reader, together with a condensed history of Italy

through the nineteenth century and a survey of Italian life." The author supplements her own brief summary of Italian history with both prose and poetry passages taken from well known writers.

This is a praiseworthy aim, to be sure, and Miss Capocelli deserves applause for choosing thus to offer to the student reading material which, besides being interesting, is of a definite cultural value, thereby wisely combining the "*utile dulci*."

The book nevertheless falls somewhat short of the aim in certain respects. Rather than offering a condensed history of Italy, Miss Capocelli's reader presents a series of episodes relating to Italian history. The greater part of these episodes relate to that part of history which has to do with Italy's struggle for independence and unity. Miss Capocelli follows this struggle from the time it is only a dream in the mind of Petrarch to the time it becomes reality with the heroes of the Italian Risorgimento. There is no doubt that such episodes furnish interesting reading material, and in this respect Miss Capocelli realizes her aim. Be it said incidentally that it is gratifying to find, among the poetry selections, Petrarch's "*Italia mia . . .*" It also should be said, to the author's credit, that the book cannot fail to impart to the student some of the enthusiasm which, it is evident, she herself feels for her subject.

While Italy's struggle for independence is given great prominence, other phases of Italian history and life are touched upon only lightly. Court life, for instance, which is one of the most characteristic aspects of the Renaissance, receives little attention. Yet the book aims to give "a survey of Italian life." I might add that merely to make mention of such important literary and historical figures as Castiglione, Ariosto, and Machiavelli, and to dwell on lesser figures, is to give the student the wrong perspective.

One could wish that Miss Capocelli had been more systematic in the arrangement of her material. The reader finds himself tossed back and forth in time as he reads on, and the result is confusion. Miss Capocelli gives a brief historical outline at the beginning of the various chapters of her book; then, without any apparent system, she alternates paragraphs of her own with passages taken from different authors. This also results in a certain amount of repetition (Cf. pp. 19 and 30 on "*Le crociate*," and pp. 20-21 and 40-42 on "*I comuni*"). Had Miss Capocelli given her account of Italian history and life for each period in its entirety in the first part of each chapter, and then grouped the selections taken from various authors at the end of each chapter under the general heading of "*Lecture*," the book would have gained immeasurably as far as clarity and order go, and repetition might have been avoided. An introductory paragraph in English telling something about each selection and its author might have been useful for the student. Miss Capocelli has done this only for a few of the selections (Petrarch's "*Italia mia . . .*," p. 80; Rutilio Namaziano's "*L'ultimo inno pagano a Roma*," p. 11 and Giusti's "*Lo stivale*," p. 106, where the explanations appear in the form of footnotes).

The book contains a useful chapter on the geography of Italy, both physical and political and a number of interesting maps and illustrations. It is supplemented also by several pages of quotations taken from Latin and Italian writers. The author feels that these excerpts will be suitable for memory work and short dictations.

The exercises found at the end of the book are a series of questions on the reading material. These could be used both for oral and written work, but only in a class where a certain amount of proficiency in the spoken and written language has already been attained. For the sake of variety, and also for the sake of the student, a more diversified group of exercises would be desirable. Completion, true-false, multiple-choice, and similar type exercises, might have been used to test comprehension.

I do not know for what grade level Miss Capocelli intended this reader. It is doubtful that the average high school student, at any stage of his language experience, would find it "interesting and enjoyable" because of the difficulty of the selections both from the standpoint of vocabulary and grammatical construction. The subject matter itself is in many cases too difficult, because it requires a definite cultural background. The book might lend itself to the second year of College Italian.

There is a minor error on page 230. Here the author mentions, as two of Grazia Deladda's

novels, *Cenere* and *Il carcerato*. I have had occasion to study Deledda's novels and cannot find any bibliographical indication of a novel by the title *Il carcerato*. The author probably refers to Deladda's *Dopo il divorzio*, later published with the title *Naufraghi in porto*, whose hero spends several years in prison for a crime of which he is innocent.

YOLANDA DI SILVESTRO

KANY, CHARLES, E. and OSTEEN, ELEANOR SHARPE, *Elementary German Conversation*. D. C. Heath and Co., Boston 1944. 64 pages. Price \$.36.

The Kany conversation method now has also added a German series of which the present Elementary text is the first. With the assumption that today conversation is the most enjoyable and also most important function of language study the authors have set out to supplement the more formal language readers, classics and military texts with material derived from daily life. The 15 dialogues with various subdivisions take the learner from *Klasse* to *Restaurant*, *Geschäft*, *Friseur*, *Arzt* and *Drogerie*, and intermediate stages. Many items of such topics by necessity are not found in the MSGV, but are useful and practical. Compactly arranged with a view to the beginner in the language, nevertheless there is a fund of common, everyday expressions.

It is believed that this booklet may be used after a week or two of preliminary grammar instruction. Ten minutes a day devoted to these conversations, frequent repetitions of the same dialogue with variations in persons, should ultimately lead to complete memorization by every student, according to the authors. One disadvantage of this method, however, is the fact that the authors have chosen these conversations for the subject matter rather than for the grammatical principles involved. This in German is an impossibility. Thus dialogue II, *Die Klasse* not only brings inversions, transposed word order, relative clauses, reflexive pronouns, separable and inseparable prefixes, but also modal auxiliaries. Further, if the teacher should follow the author's advice and vary the persons and number of the verb, then the irregular verbs in *e*-stems have to be known as well. One subheading of Chapter II uses six perfect participles after *haben* and *sein*, three with prefixes, one in *-iert*. This is a difficult assignment indeed for students of the second or third week in Beginning German. Of other verb forms even subjunctives like *möchten*, *würden*, *hätte* and a few others are not uncommon in the body of the book.

Every word and expression is found in a footnote at the end of each conversation. At the end of the booklet is also a limited vocabulary whose principle of selection is not altogether clear, because, for example, *leicht*, occurring three times, is not listed, neither are the present tenses of *mögen*, nor of any irregular verbs in *e*- and *a*-stems. Waschen has no roots indicated.

In attempting to give "lively and entertaining" material the authors are not sparing in their use of humour. However, if this material is to be repeated frequently and memorized, one wonders whether a beginner in the language is prepared to understand e.g. II, p. 7 "Regenschirm' ist weiblich." "Weil . . . es ein Stock mit Röckchen ist"; or it must try a teacher's nerves to hear repeatedly for about half a week that sister is married "Mit ihrem Mann" or "Das Futur des Zeitworts 'lieben' ist 'hieraten'," etc. Some of the expressions of time are confusing, for instance III, p. 8 "Es ist sehn (Minuten) nach eins oder (ein) viertel nach eins" (a similar example is on p. 9). One might well question why a beginner should learn: "Nein, in zwanzig Minuten ist es halb zwei"; the English translation in Note 14 may be left out. Even if a guest may order for his dinner VII, p. 21: "Ein grosses Beefsteak, weil ich kurzsichtig bin," he has no cause for being impolite in the end by telling the waiter (and he likes to be addressed with his proper title): "Ich habe bereits den Appetit verloren." Concerning punctuation, *bitte*, please, is to be enclosed by commas on all occasions.

Coupled with a basic grammar this handy, pocket-sized booklet may lend itself to use in classes where rapid speaking methods of German are employed.

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MOULTON, WILLIAM G. and MOULTON, JENNI KARDING, *Spoken German*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1944. Price \$3.00.

This text is identical with War Department Education Manual EM 518 which was originally prepared and published for the United States Armed Forces Institute by the Linguistic Society of America and the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies. It is one of a series of self-teaching manuals in some thirty languages now appearing in "public editions" in the Holt Spoken Language Series. The entire series was prepared in accordance with a uniform plan which stipulated that each textbook was to provide materials for approximately the first two hundred hours of language study in thirty units, of which the first twelve were to be accompanied by twenty-four double-faced recordings of the foreign language material contained in them. Full emphasis in the textbooks is placed upon speaking, which is acquired by imitation of a native speaker and by memorization and manipulation of basic sentences. Grammar is included but subordinated to speaking and intended only to aid the student in memorizing what he hears and in varying what he has memorized. It is suggested that reading be begun at approximately the twelfth unit.

The thirty units of *Spoken German* are subdivided into five major parts of which each contains five learning units and one review unit. Each learning unit presents: A) Basic Sentences (dialogues for imitative pronunciation and memorization) followed by Hints on Pronunciation or Hints on Spelling. B) Word Study (simplified grammar) and Review of Basic Sentences. C) Review of Basic Sentences, Cont. (variation exercises). D) Listening In (understanding conversations etc. using vocabulary and constructions used in the unit). E) Conversation (suggested topics with succession of events outlined in English). F) Conversation, Cont. (free amplification and variation of the preceding section). A vocabulary is given at the end of each learning unit. The review units for the most part provide conversational sentences in English for translation into German and additional suggestions for conversation. Complete German-English and English-German vocabularies are provided at the end of the text together with two supplementary word lists (one of German army ranks, the other of geographical terms).

The material contained in *Spoken German* is consistently fresh, vivid, and practically useful. Most of the twenty-five learning units present dialogues on daily-life social situations. A few near the end of the book deal with topics such as geography, history and government, and industry. It should be noted that only one (23) deals with army life.

The presentation of the materials was dictated by the specific purpose of the book: "to enable members of the Armed Forces to learn German, without a teacher, during off-duty time." It is therefore understandable that the authors should have adopted a rather unorthodox presentation of grammar and that they should have included in their text an abundance of explanations and instructions on procedure, use of the records, etc. While it is impossible to enter upon details of this nature, it should be observed that the sensible arrangement of grammatical forms and the plain, straightforward language of the explanations and directions will no doubt be welcomed by the student without linguistic background as an alternative to the mystifying terminology of traditional Latin grammar.

The reviewer is disappointed in the "Summary of Forms" (pp. 518-19) which contains only article, adjective, and pronoun tables instead of the "summary of all word study material" promised in the Introduction (p. IV). It is difficult to see why schematic summaries of nouns, verbs and tenses, etc. were not included here.

The principle of instruction upon which *Spoken German* is based—pattern sentences to be mimicked, memorized, and used endlessly in conversations either in their basic form or in variations—is by this time familiar to those who were associated with AST language courses or had an opportunity to observe the work carried on in them, as well as to those who have since been engaged in teaching conversation sections in which the methodology is patterned to a greater or lesser degree after the AST courses. After extensive experience with both types of courses the reviewer is convinced of the fundamental soundness of this principle as well as of its substantial carry-over value for subsequent reading.

Spoken German, together with the records for its first twelve units, would seem excellently suited for self-instruction and for group work without the guidance of a professional teacher. It should likewise prove extremely useful as a basis for the laboratory type course in which the "demonstration" is primarily carried on by means of recordings. Such courses are now being initiated in increasing numbers. And while it should be possible to adapt the book to standard classes, it is the reviewer's belief that the "Aids to Listening" (simplified spelling of the German sounds provided along with the conventional spelling of German words and phrases)—indispensable as they may be for the book's original purposes—will so obtrude themselves upon the consciousness of the professional teacher working without benefit of recordings as to constitute a constant source of annoyance to him. It is to be hoped, however, that teachers will carefully examine the book and decide this for themselves.

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BLOOMFIELD, LEONARD, *Colloquial Dutch: Holt Spoken Language Series*. Henry Holt and Company, 1944. ix and 283 pages.

According to a statement on the title page, this edition is identical with the one prepared for the United States Armed Forces Institute and published by the Linguistic Society of America and the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies. In the past, Americans desirous of learning Dutch, the language of the Netherlands and of part of Belgium (where it is called *Flemish*), have had at their disposal two textbooks, *A Grammar of Modern Dutch* by E. Kruisinga (London: Allen and Unwin, 1924) and *Simplified Dutch Grammar for Americans* by K. van Zonneveld (Groningen: Noordhoff, 1929). The new grammar by Bloomfield, eminent linguist at Yale University and chief linguistic expert for the Army language program, is a welcome addition. In the Preface, Bloomfield acknowledges some limited indebtedness to Kruisinga's book. However, in the main the Dutch matter in this manual was furnished in spoken form by a native speaker, Dr. B. H. M. Vlekke, a Netherlander living in the United States. The title also indicates that this is not a grammatical analysis of the literary standard language culled from books but rather an attempt to reproduce and teach step by step the colloquial form of speech of an educated man.

The course is divided into 31 lessons, an English-Dutch and a Dutch-English end vocabulary, as well as a list of irregular verbs. Each lesson contains word lists and sentences arranged with a view to practical situations, such as starting a conversation, getting around, renting rooms, etc. The explanatory remarks are given wherever they seem appropriate, either preceding or following the word lists and sentences. The sentences are detached and do not form a connected conversation. This need not be considered a shortcoming. On each page are three columns of words or sentences, a left-hand column with the English equivalent, a middle column with the Dutch translation given in phonetic transcription called "Aid to Listening," and a right-hand column with the Dutch in its conventional spelling. The part dealing with pronunciation is treated with special care, and strongest emphasis is laid on "listening by ear." This is in accordance with the basic intention of the author which is to teach the spoken form of Dutch. The user of the manual is told that he should study the language with the help of a native speaker of Dutch who will say the words and sentences for him. With him the learner should engage in conversation as soon as possible. However, the native speaker is not supposed to be a teacher, nor should he be asked questions about grammar. Whoever has taught grown-ups or adolescents knows that they will always ask a lot of questions, and it is even considered good pedagogy to encourage pupils to ask questions. The prominence assigned to the native speaker or "guide" comes out clearly in this statement: "The Aid to Listening will help you only after you have heard and imitated the Dutch sounds as spoken by the Guide." In view of the fact that only very rarely an American will be able to get hold of a native speaker of Dutch, it is puzzling why an unchanged public edition of this Army manual should have been

made at all. It could be understood if it were accompanied by a set of phonographic recordings of the text as pronounced by Professor Bloomfield's informant. Perhaps such a set of phonograph records is forthcoming? However, people interested in the Dutch language should not be deterred just because no native speaker nor a set of phonograph records is available. They can make excellent use of the book by relying mostly on the right-hand column giving the conventional spelling. Anyhow, in practical life an educated person (teacher, commercial or newspaper correspondent, government employe, research scholar, scientist) will have much more occasion to use the written form of a foreign language than its spoken form, be it at home or abroad. Education without writing is unthinkable in modern times.

The material is extremely well organized and attractively presented, with a minimum of theory and yet with utmost clarity and precision. Rare are the instances where one might wish to have a phrase explained in greater detail, e.g., on p. 242 where we find two sentences in which the form *zit* (third singular present of *zitten* "to sit") might easily be mistaken for something else. The sentences are: *Hebt u gekeken wat er in zit?* "Have you looked (to see) what's in it?" and *Dit is de la, maar ik weet niet wat er in zit* "This is the drawer, but I don't know what's in it." One of the many valuable features of this manual are the accent (stress) marks given in the transcribed form of Dutch (middle column). I have noticed only three misprints. On p. 240, middle column, *koolonël* should be corrected to *koolonēl*. On p. 245, middle column, *kóomēndē* should be *kóomēndē*. P. 20, right-hand column, *hop koffie* is misprinted for *kop koffie*. W.C. is transcribed *wée-sée* on p. 23, but *wee-sée* on p. 27. *ik* (personal pronoun) is usually transcribed as *ik* (or *ig*), e.g., *ik-sou* pp. 25, 168, 174, 177, 181, 184, 195, 198, 201, 210, 212, *ik sou* 209; but *ēk-sou* pp. 24 (three times), 30; *ēk-mách* and *mách-ēk* p. 25.

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PEI, MARIO A., *Languages for War and Peace*, second edition. S. F. Vanni, New York, 1945, pp. 663. \$5.00.

The purpose of this book, according to the foreword, "is to present the main facts about languages, not in the form of a philosophical or psychological or literary essay, not from the historical and scientific point of view, but as something of an immediate, practical value. The world's main languages and their geographical distribution, the linguistic families and the elementary [?] relationship among their members, the identification of the written and possibly the spoken form of several important tongues, and lastly the description of the sounds and grammatical structure, together with a limited vocabulary, of seven of the world's most widely-spoken languages—all this will serve the purpose of giving the readers the elementary linguistic consciousness that the soldier of today needs in his military activities and that the man and woman of tomorrow will need." This purpose, it seems to me, is essentially fulfilled by this book, which is *not* destined for scholars, although even scholars may sometimes use it with profit if they do not know all the languages described in it. It really contains more than the foreword says, because there is a succinct description of the "structure," as well as a "limited vocabulary," of many other languages outside of the *big seven*, (German, Italian, French, Spanish Portuguese, Russian, Japanese), as e.g. Dutch, Rumanian, Chinese, Finnish, Hungarian, Turkish and many others, though on a minor scale. After two introductory chapters on *Language Types and Language Families* (pp. 15-40) and *Geography and Language* (pp. 41-62) the most important linguistic groups of the world are examined (*Germanic, Romance, Slavic*, etc.), with a division which is partly geographic (*Other European Languages, Languages of the Middle and Far East*), an incongruity that must surely *not* be grudged, the *practical* purpose of the book once admitted. There are 16 maps, which could definitely be better from the typographical point of view, and 19 *Alphabets and Illustrations*, which are good (though what is meant by *Illustrations* I do not know) and which should enable the reader to recognize immediately the *writing* (if we want to avoid the word *Alphabet*) of any language, a purpose cer-

tainly not to be overlooked. The indexes at the end are abundant, well-done and very useful.

Unfortunately, I am far from knowing, even superficially, all the languages examined in this book. As far as I can see, those that I know are correctly and clearly presented; the others I leave to colleagues more competent than I. I said the book serves its purpose very well; it may also serve other purposes, one of them, very important, to attract the attention and the sympathy of the layman to linguistic studies. We need many more such simple, clear, attractive books, which may easily go into the hands of the millions and dozens of millions and spread among them, together with some interesting facts and elementary notions about languages and language, the idea that linguistics is not a strange, mysterious sort of abracadabra, or a futile guesswork of idle minds, but a science as understandable as physics or zoology, only more closely connected with man, and capable of revealing to us some of the most intimate secrets of the human soul. There are of course, I am aware, many books which pretend to do this; but they are frequently bad, and serve an opposite purpose.

In my teaching experience, I have always thought that we were overloading our beginning students with too many rules and exceptions of grammar. If we consider that nowadays a very important purpose of language instruction is to teach how to *read*, and not only how to *speak* or *write*, a foreign language, it becomes clear that a short, strongly simplified sketch of a grammar of a language is quite sufficient in order to understand, with the help of a dictionary, an easy text in a foreign tongue. It is not necessary to know by heart all the French irregular verbs, nor to penetrate all the mysteries of the German declensions or the delicacies and subtleties of the Russian aspects in order to read a French or German or Russian newspaper or novel. These refinements can wait until a certain practical knowledge is developed through independent reading. This practical experience Mr. Pei, an experienced teacher, seems to have perfectly understood and applied here to a good purpose.

The author will not object if, with the rather meticulous habit of the professional linguist I remark on some details which could be improved or corrected in a new edition.

P. 19. As it now stands, the text seems to imply that the Greek and Russian alphabets are a "modification" of *our* (Latin) alphabet; as Professor Pei very well knows, it is rather the other way around.

P. 23. Forms like Latin *finivisti*, *amavisti*, etc., are absolutely exceptional in Latin (cf. my article in *Language* 17, 1941, pp. 201 ff.); they should not be used as "paradigmatic."

P. 25. Under "Western Germanic," Frisian, still used by about 400,000 speakers in North-western Germany and Northern Holland, should be included.

P. 25. The "Eastern Germanic" branch was "represented" not only by Gothic, but also by the languages of the Vandals, Burgundians, Rugii, Gepidae, Heruli, Scyrris and Turcilingi, who destroyed the Western Roman Empire, and whose names are therefore certainly familiar to many of the readers of this book.

P. 27. Manx has now been extinct for nine years. (I have this information from my friend Professor Marstrand of the University of Oslo.)

P. 27, 7. This Romance Language is usually called Rhaeto-Romance or Rhaeto-Romanic, not "Rhetian" (this term is reserved for the *Pre-Roman* population of modern Switzerland); cf., e.g., the Collegiate Webster, *s.u.u.*; it is *not* spoken in Tyrol (which is a region of Austria, capital Innsbruck) but only in Southeastern Switzerland (Grisons) and in Italy (in the Alto Adige [Upper Adige], Cadore and Friuli).

P. 27, 7. The "Italic" branch of Indo-European is based on no convincing arguments; Walde, Devoto, Hubert and others have recently shown that both archaeology, history and linguistics point definitely to a sharp cleavage between Latin and Osco-Umbrian (the latter being much closer to Germanic and Greek than to Latin).

P. 47. Most of the Slavic population of Istria is Croat, not Slovene; the census of 1910 gave 168,000 Croats as against 55,000 Slovenes.

P. 45. There are 80,000 Poles in Czechoslovakia (Silesia).

P. 45. Holstein is *not* (since 1866) in the Southern section of Denmark; it is in Germany.

P. 48. *Rumansh* is usually spelled *Romansh* (see Collegiate Webster; I have never seen *Rumansh*); it is not an *official* language in Switzerland, but only a *national* language. The official languages of Switzerland are still three, literary Italian, literary French and literary German.

P. 47. The Polish linguistic minority in Germany (frontiers of 1939) can hardly be called *small*: according to Meillet and Tesnière, *Les langues du monde*, 1928, p. 324, there were in Germany (in 1926) 1,122,726 Poles, 115,977 of whom lived in Eastern Prussia, 14,948 on the borders of Posnania and Pomorze, and no less than 530,265 in Silesia. But these figures are surely much too low, for the reasons given by Meillet and Tesnière, p. 318.

P. 646. It cannot be said that "the first two chapters of this book" deal with "linguistic geography"; *linguistic geography* is something quite different. The title Chapter II has in fact (*Geography and Languages*) is more correct, although not quite (*Geographical Distribution of Languages* is what is meant).

As the reader can see, all these remarks concern the first two chapters; but they are after all of minor importance, and do not destroy the fact that they are a good and interesting introduction for the layman. They certainly needed, however, a more thorough and painstaking examination and revision.

From a *practical* point of view, it seems inconsequent not to have added Chinese to the *big seven* languages: while 39 pages are devoted to Italian, 45 to German, 44 to French, 42 to Spanish, 43 to Russian, 44 to Portuguese, 56 to Japanese and even 12 to Dutch, only 15 are devoted to Chinese; this is done according to a definite plan (cf. pp. 13; 15; 39; 454, n. 1; 489, n. 2. Still, according to Mr. Pei himself (p. 51), although there are many Chinese dialects which are not "mutually intelligible," there exists a compact block of 280,000,000 people who can be reached with the official language, Mandarin, which is of course moreover understood by all literates everywhere. The vast majority of Chinese speakers cannot be reached with English, and even less with Japanese, as Mr. Pei himself informs us (p. 51).

In conclusion, an attractive and well-constructed book, which presents an enormous amount of material in a handy volume, easy to carry around. The author is sincerely to be congratulated for this new achievement of his.

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